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ART. I.—*A Course of Lectures on Natural Philosophy, and the Mechanical Arts.* By Thomas Young, M.D. For. Sec. R.S. F.L.S. Member of Emanuel College, Cambridge, and late Professor of Natural Philosophy in the Royal Institution of Great Britain. 2 Vols. 4to. 5l. 5s. Johnson. 1807.

THE foundation of the Royal Institution we regard as an epoch which marks the progress of civilization in this great metropolis, and an happy omen of the general spirit of improvement, which pervades all ranks of the community. Among the middle ranks there has ever existed a sort of literary order. The university of Cambridge annually sends into society young men, many of them accomplished in the foundations of philosophical knowledge; at Edinburgh too the student has the advantage of the lectures of enlightened professors in the same branches of instruction; and we rejoice to hear that, latterly, Oxford has received a portion of the impulse communicated to the public mind, and has resolved no longer to confine the aspiring energies of the youthful mind within the narrow limits of verbal criticism and the dialectics of Aristotle. These fountains of knowledge, however pure, it must be confessed are by far too scanty to fertilize the immense tract of civilized society. In fact, the very name of philosopher is still regarded as denoting a sort of virtuoso, or an adept in occult sciences, wholly remote from the ordinary pursuits of life. This vulgar prejudice, the offspring of the darkness of superstitious ages, is wearing away apace. It is acknowledged that the human mind can have no employment more worthy of its exalted faculties, than the contemplation of nature, and the study of the laws which regu-

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late the appearances of the wonderful scene which is constantly presented to our eyes; nor can the Creator receive a more pure homage, than the admiration irresistibly impressed on a thinking being by a rational and enlightened view of the harmony of his works. We regard the foundation of the Royal Institution as a public acknowledgment of this feeling among the most polished class of society, and giving it as it were a permanent and substantial existence among the establishments destined to form the manners of the rising generation.

Whether public lectures are the best modes of conveying the instruction, the diffusion of which is so much wanted, we have our doubts. We think that the elements, at least, of physical knowledge and the preliminary studies requisite for attaining them ought to form a regular part of common school learning. Boys of common capacities may have laid a solid foundation of classical knowledge at the age of 14. After that there are three or four of the most valuable years of life which are too often miserably thrown away. In these years the rudiments of geometry, algebra (as far as quadratic equations), the doctrine of ratios, and the easier parts of dynamics might be readily acquired, without any hindrance to a further proficiency in polite letters. It is the most childish ignorance to think that the capacities of boys are not equal to these studies. The deficiency is not in the pupil, but in the teachers. And till we see a thorough reformation in all our public schools, and an extension of school learning to the knowledge of things as well as of words, we must expect the study of sound and legitimate philosophy not to be greatly extended beyond the narrow circuit to which it is at present confined.

But till this desirable reformation has taken place, the reading of public lectures, aided by the illustration derived from experiment, is the best substitute for elementary education, and if those which are given at the Royal Institution do not afford to the hearers all the knowledge which they wish, they at least give the greatest possible aid to private study, and inform those to whom private study is too great a toil, of the great extent of their own ignorance. We cannot avoid premising these remarks to the splendid, extensive and profound work which is now before us. We had not the pleasure of being one of Dr. Young's auditors, and we have heard it asserted that his lectures were dry and uninteresting. We can readily understand how this must have been unavoidable. He must have been talking an unknown language to the great body of his audience. Having never received the elementary education which we have recommended, they were introduced suddenly into a new country,

in which they were ignorant of the language. To expect them to follow the sense of the lectures, is to require of a blind man, who has just received the faculty of seeing, to judge immediately of distances, shades, and proportions in the same manner as those who have from their infancy been blest with the use of their eyes. Though philosophy is not geometry, and perhaps many of the physical properties of matter and motion may be understood without the use of diagrams, still geometrical ideas are perpetually involved in these discussions, and those who are totally without them must be contented to remain in darkness, with regard to the greater part of the matters treated of. What is not understood or but half understood must necessarily seem dry and uninteresting, and perhaps the more profound is the knowledge of the teacher, the less likely will he be to be attractive to a large and mixed assembly. Such an audience cannot raise themselves to the level of the lecturer, and the lecturer is unable to lower himself to the level of his audience.

Dr. Young has divided his lectures into three principal heads; *Mechanics, Hydrodynamics, and Physics*. The first head includes the laws of motion, and the doctrine of forces; pressure and equilibrium; collision; the motions of connected bodies; statics; passive strength, and friction. The principles of the science are illustrated by their application to a great variety of the mechanical arts; nor do we know any work in which is compressed in a moderate compass so great a fund of information on these subjects. We must content ourselves with making a simple enumeration of the principal part of them. Besides the common mechanic powers treated of in every system of mechanics, we have a lecture on drawing, writing and measuring; another on modelling, perspective, engraving and printing; one on architecture and carpentry; and one on time-keepers. In these and dispersed throughout the other lectures we find explained the principles of drawing; outline; pen; pencil; chalks; crayons; Indian ink; water colours; body colours; miniatures; distemper; fresco; oil; encaustic painting; enamel; mosaic work; writing; polygraph; telegraph; geometrical instruments; pantograph; sector; theodolite; quadrant; vernier; levelling; modelling; casting; perspective; engraving; ruling; mezzotinto; etching; aqua tinta; musical characters; printing; walls; joints; mortar; arch; piers; domes; roofs; furniture; twisting; spinning; rope making; weaving; hats; paper; printing press; sugar mill; oil mill; wire-drawing; glass-blowing; coining; stamping; sling; bow and arrow; whip; slitting-mill; lathe; boring; mining; sawing; stone-cutting; grinding;

polishing; powder mills; threshing machines; corn mills; kneading; levigating; bolt drawer; burning; blasting.

These are but a few of the processes, arts or instruments, which are modifications of the mechanical powers, and which are explained in the course of these lectures. We have not been very particular in the selection, and those which we have omitted are many of them of as much importance as those we have produced. Figures are given of all the instruments and the machines at the end of the volume. Perhaps we have reason to complain that Dr. Young has been rather too copious than otherwise, in the objects of his illustrations; since in order to prevent a large work becoming of still greater bulk, it has occasionally obliged him to adopt a brevity in his explanations, which is not always consistent with clearness.

The doctrine of forces acting upon solid bodies, and the application of them to purposes of practical utility, is the part of physical science which most readily admits of demonstration amounting very nearly to geometrical precision. To comprehend them thoroughly the use of diagrams seems absolutely necessary. But Dr. Young has thought right to dispense entirely with the use of diagrams in the body of his lectures, contenting himself with referring to them at the end of his work; and giving short explanations of the diagram on the page opposite to the plate. But we think, though we do not disapprove of this method, where there is no obvious inconvenience, that Dr. Young has in several instances, for the sake of uniformity, adhered to it too pertinaciously. Where the object is very simple, it causes a useless repetition; where it is more complex, a redundancy of words is necessary to prove what might have been done in half the compass, by the aid of a diagram, and with infinitely more clearness; and lastly, the circumstance of having dilated on the question under consideration in the lecture, has caused him to be so extremely concise in the references to the diagram, as to throw very little additional light on the subject. On the whole, then, we think the old method of referring at once to a diagram, where such reference aids the imagination, is the most useful, and that in so carefully avoiding it, Dr. Young has sacrificed both brevity and clearness to so close an adherence to systematic arrangement.

We have no disposition to dwell on these trifles, but to show that we are not hazarding random assertions, we will produce a very short specimen of his account of a very simple and useful little instrument, called a vernier, an instrument which is in the hands of every body who is master of a barometer. His words are these:

'But a simpler method of reading off divisions with accuracy in common instruments, is the application of a vernier, an apparatus so called from its inventor. The space occupied by eleven divisions of the scale being divided into ten parts in the index, the coincidence of any of the divisions of the index with those of the scale shows by its distance from the end, the number of tenths to be added to the entire divisions. (Plate vii. fig. 92.)'

The reference to the plate is in these words simply: 'A vernier, indicating $88\frac{3}{10}$ of the divisions of its scale. p. 105.' Of the figure itself, we must complain that its execution is such, that to an eye of moderate powers, no less than three of the divisions of the index appear to coincide with the divisions of the scale. But this *en passant*. In the description of the instrument itself, we arrive by a single leap from the premises at the conclusion. Had the doctor condescended to give two or three of the intermediate steps, we think he would have saved most of his readers a toil, which many of them will think a greater evil than remaining ignorant of the use of a vernier. To those who can read Newton's Principia, or who perchance are versed in Cocker's Arithmetic, more words were not needful. But does Dr. Young write for such persons only? We hope that the purchasers of his book will be infinitely more numerous. We beg our readers to observe that we have cited this example as one of ill-placed brevity, the consequence, probably, of the writer's having comprehended in his design too great a multiplicity of objects. We might, if we thought right, produce other examples to illustrate our other objections. But we wish to avoid the appearance of captious criticism.

That Dr. Young is profoundly skilled in the methods of mathematical analysis, and the sciences depending upon them, no one can doubt, who is acquainted with the many ingenious speculations by which he has distinguished himself. But he does not appear to us to have paid due attention to the metaphysics of philosophy, by reason of which he has sometimes fallen into the use of language, which we deem obscure and unphilosophical. Force is a species of power; it is power applied to the generation of motion. Force denotes always a species of relation, and we doubt whether it is possible for the mind to conceive it as possessing an absolute and independent existence. Whether forces therefore can, strictly speaking, have that sort of existence which is susceptible of proportion, whether they can be properly represented by magnitudes, and thus be a subject of mathematical demonstration we extremely doubt. In a word, we doubt whether force can legitimately be called a

quantity, and therefore whether the expression of double, treble, quadruple force, &c. has any intelligible signification. Let us examine those with which we are acquainted; for some of which we talk most familiarly, gravitation for example, is entirely hidden from us, except by its effects. Volition is a true and proper force, which considered as a cause and in its effects is present to us every moment. But if we were to talk of a double or triple volition, should we not be using unintelligible jargon? Heat considered as a cause of expansion is also a force; the expansion may be double or treble; but a double or a treble heat is what no one can understand.

When, therefore, we undertake to measure forces, and to express them by arbitrary signs, be they algebraical characters or mathematical figures, it is under some secret hypothesis that causes are proportional to their effects; a position very commonly laid down, as a self-evident truth; but to which we cannot assent, as we see that effects are often susceptible of proportion, whilst their causes are wholly incapable of it. We have thrown out these observations as they prove to our own minds, that the laws of motion, the fundamental properties of the lever, the laws of the descent of heavy bodies, in truth all the fundamental principles of dynamics, are really not mathematical but experimental truths, and that all attempts to prove them to be necessary truths, either from metaphysical or from mathematical considerations, must ever fail. Had Dr. Young justly considered the proper boundaries between mathematical and experimental truths, we think he never would have written the following sentence:

‘The law discovered by Galileo, that the space described is as the square of the time of descent, and that it is also equal to half the space, which would be described in the same time with the final velocity, is one of the most useful and interesting propositions in the whole science of mechanics. Its truth is easily shown, from mathematical considerations, by comparing the time with the base and the velocity with the perpendicular of a triangle, gradually increasing, of which the area will represent the space.’

That such is the law of an uniform force, requires no triangle to make evident; it may easily be shown from equal movements of velocity being produced, which is no more than the definition of an uniform force. Experiment proves this to be the law of falling bodies on the surface of the earth, and, independent of experiment, we think that no mathematical consideration could prove it. Still farther removed from legitimate reasoning, is the sort of attempt at

demonstration, which he has taken from Maclaurin on the fundamental property of the lever.

'Supposing two equal weights, of an ounce each, to be fixed at the ends of the equal arms of a lever of the first kind; in this case it is obvious there will be an equilibrium, since there is no reason why either weight should preponderate.'

We say it is not obvious at all. It might have happened that the end nearest the north pole, for example, should have always preponderated; or it might have followed any other imaginable law; or we might not have been able to discover that the result was regulated by any law whatever. Such a state of things would doubtless have been very inconsistent with the economy of human life; but it is no more repulsive to reason, than the phenomena of the magnetic needle. That we can see no reason why the event should be otherwise than it is, is an argument that we did not expect to be brought forward in the present day, when it seems universally agreed, that there exists no necessary relation between cause and effect in any of the phenomena of the physical world.

Hydrodynamics, or the properties of fluid matter, is the second division of Dr. Young's lectures. Under this general head are comprehended hydrostatics, acoustics, and optics. The latter science has commonly fallen under a different arrangement, but Dr. Young has chosen to consider optics as a branch of hydrodynamics, preferring the Huygenian theory of the undulations of an elastic medium to the Newtonian of the emission of particles of light from luminous bodies. Under various heads, we find explained the principles of balloons, barometers, locks and syphons, whirlpools, waves, motions of rivers, weirs, form of a ship, hydrometer, embankments, dikes, reservoirs, floodgates, canals, piers, harbours, water-pipes, stop cocks and valves, overshot wheel, undershot-wheel, breast-wheel, windmills, smoke-jack, kite, pumps, fire-engine, air-pump, condensers, corn-fan, chimnies, steam-engine, gunpowder, air gun, speaking-trumpet, whispering-gallery, invisible-girl, harp, lyre, harpsichord, spinet, pianoforte, dulcimer, clarichord, guitar, vielle, trumpet, murrain, Æolian-harp, human voice, drum, stacada, bell, harmonica, vox humana, pipe, photometers, magnifiers, simple microscope, burning-glasses, camera obscura, solar microscope, lucernal microscope, phantasmagoria, double microscopes, telescopes common, Herschel's, Newton's, Gregory's, and Cassegrain's double magnifier, achromatic glasses, micrometers, divided speculum, aerial perspective, panorama, ocular spectre.

We shall select as a specimen of the execution of this work, his observations on vision, a subject to which he has paid more than common attention. After describing the formation of the image on the surface of the retina, and attempting to account for an inverted image causing the sensation of an erect object, Dr. Young thus gives his opinion on another subject, which has caused much dispute among philosophers.

‘The mode in which the accommodation of the eye to different distances is effected, has long been a subject of investigation and dispute among opticians and physiologists, but I apprehend that at present there is little farther room for doubting that the change is produced by an increase of the convexity of the crystalline lens, arising from an internal cause. The arguments in favour of this conclusion are of two kinds. Some of them are negative, derived from the impossibility of imagining any other mode, without exceeding the limits of the actual dimensions of the eye, and from the examination of the eye in its different states by several tests, capable of detecting any other changes if they had existed: for example, by the application of water to the cornea, which completely removes the effect of its convexity, without impairing the power of altering the focus, and by holding the whole eye, when turned inwards, in such a manner as to render any material alteration of its length utterly impossible. Other arguments are deduced from positive evidence of the change of form of the crystalline, furnished by the particular effects of refraction and aberration, which are observable in the different states of the eye, effects which furnish a direct proof that the figure of the lens must vary: its surfaces, which are nearly spherical in the quiescent form of the lens, assuming a different determinable curvature when it is called into exertion. The objections which have been made to this conclusion are founded only on the appearance of a slight alteration of focal length in an eye, from which the crystalline had been extracted; but the fact is neither sufficiently ascertained, nor was the apparent change at all considerable: and even if it were proved that an eye without a lens is capable of a certain small alteration, it would by no means follow that it could undergo a change five times or ten times as great.’

On the power of judging of distances we have the following observations:

‘When the images of the object fall on certain corresponding points of the retina in each eye, they appear to the sense only as one; but if they fall on parts not corresponding, the object appears double; and in general all objects at the same distance, in any one position of the eyes, appear alike, either double or single. The optical axes, or the directions of the rays falling on the points

of most perfect vision, naturally meet at a great distance, that is, they are nearly parallel to each other, and in looking at a nearer object we make them converge towards it, wherever it may be situated, by means of the external muscles of the eye; while in perfect eyes the refractive powers are altered, at the same time, by an involuntary sympathy, so as to form a distinct image of an object at a given distance. This correspondence of the situation of the axis with the focal length is in most cases unalterable; but some have perhaps a power of deranging it in a slight degree, and in others, the adjustment is imperfect; but the eyes seem to be in most persons inseparably connected together with respect to the changes that their refractive powers undergo, although it sometimes happens that those powers are originally very different in the opposite eyes.

‘These motions enable us to judge pretty accurately, within certain limits, of the distance of an object; and beyond these limits, the degree of distinctness or confusion of the image still continues to assist the judgment. We estimate distances much less accurately with one eye than with both, since we are deprived of the assistance usually afforded by the relative assistance of the optical axes; thus we seldom succeed at once in attempting to pass a finger or a hooked rod sideways through a ring, with one eye shut. Our idea of distance is also usually regulated by the knowledge of the real magnitude of an object, while we observe its angular magnitude: and on the other hand a knowledge of the real or imaginary distance of the object often directs our judgment of its actual magnitude. The quantity of light intercepted by the air interposed, and the intensity of the blue tint, which it occasions, are also elements of our involuntary calculation: hence, in a mist, the obscurity increases the apparent distance, and consequently the supposed magnitude of an unknown object. We naturally observe, in estimating a distance, the number and extent of the intervening objects; so that a distant church in a woody and hilly country appears more remote than if it were situated in a plain; and for a similar reason the apparent distance of an object at sea is smaller than its true distance. The city of London is unquestionably larger than Paris; but the difference appears at first sight much greater than it really is; and the smoke produced by the coal fires of London, is probably the principal cause of the deception.

‘The sun, moon and stars, are much less luminous, when they are near the horizon, than when they are more elevated, on account of the greater quantity of their light, that is intercepted, in its longer passage through the atmosphere: we also observe a much greater variety of nearer objects almost in the same direction; we cannot, therefore, help imagining them to be more distant, when they rise or set, than at other times; and since they subtend the same angle they appear to be actually larger. For similar reasons the apparent figure of the starry heavens, even when free from clouds, is that of a flattened vault, its summit appearing to be much nearer to us than its horizontal parts, and any of the constellations seems to be

considerably larger when it is near the horizon than when in the zenith.

‘The faculty of judging of the actual distance of objects is an impediment to the deception, which it is partly the business of a painter to produce. Some of the effects of objects at different distances may, however, be imitated in painting on a plane surface; thus, supposing the eye to be accommodated to a given distance, objects at all other distances may be represented with a certain indistinctness of outline, which would accompany the images of the objects themselves on the retina: and this indistinctness is so generally necessary, that its absence has the disagreeable effect of hardness. The apparent magnitude of the subjects of our design, and the relative situations of the intervening objects, may be so imitated by the rules of geometrical perspective as to agree perfectly with nature, and we may still farther improve the representation of distance by attending to the art of aerial perspective, which consists in the due observation of the loss of light, and the bluish tinge, occasioned by the interposition of a greater or less depth of air between us and the different parts of the scenery.

‘We cannot indeed so arrange the picture, that either the focal length of the eye or the position of the optical axes, may be such as would be required by the actual objects: but we may place the picture at such a distance that neither of these criterions can have much power in detecting the fallacy; or, by the interposition of a large lens, we may produce nearly the same effects in the rays of light, as if they proceeded from a picture at any required distance. In the panorama, which has lately been exhibited in many parts of Europe, the effects of natural scenery are very closely imitated; the deception is favoured by the absence of all other visible objects, and by the faintness of the light, which assists in concealing the defects of the representation, and for which the eye is usually prepared, by being long detained in the dark winding passages, which lead to the place of exhibition.

These latter observations are clear and distinct, the language unaffected, and the argument unobjectionable. We cannot say however, on the subject of our first quotation, that we feel by any means convinced that the crystalline lens has that power of contraction which Dr. Young ascribes to it. Anatomists have not discovered any apparatus for producing this change in its structure: and the organ itself is of that magnitude, that muscular fibres having power sufficient to produce this change, must be of that size that they could not escape a careful research. We would ask too whether, if we really possessed this power of altering the form of the lens, we should not at the same time be enabled to change the apparent magnitude of any object by an act of simple volition, a power which undoubtedly we do not possess, and which would be rather detrimental than useful to us.

We are ourselves inclined to think that the solution of the difficulty in question, does not wholly depend upon principles entirely optical, but in a great measure also upon physiological and metaphysical considerations.

The doctrines of pure mechanics rest upon principles, the truth of which has been impressed upon the mind so forcibly by the constant and uniform experience of our lives, that we regard them as a species of axioms or self-evident truths. In hydrodynamics the circumstances are more complicated; and we cannot trust so much to mere abstract reasoning. We are therefore under the necessity of calling in the assistance of experimental determinations; and after all, whether from the imperfection of our modes of considering the mechanical action of the particles of fluids upon each other, or from the deficiencies of our analytical calculations, or perhaps from the combination of both these causes, all attempts to reduce the properties of fluids to a perfect mechanical theory have been hitherto unsuccessful. There remains still an immense mass of interesting phenomena, to which the rules of calculation and the art of analysis are still less applicable. On these therefore we are necessitated to content ourselves with simple description, or the adoption of hypotheses as nearly coincident with the phenomena as imperfect and inadequate data will admit. The last division of Dr. Young's work comprehends these sciences. He has deviated somewhat from the strict order of arrangement by placing plain, or as he phrases it, descriptive astronomy at the head of these sciences. But, in truth, he has collected into this third division of his work whatever could not with any propriety be comprehended under the two former; we think it right therefore to enumerate the titles of the different lectures. They are as follows:

'On the fixed Stars;' 'On the Solar System;' 'On the Laws of Gravitation;' 'On the Appearances of the Celestial Bodies;' 'On Practical Astronomy;' 'On Geography;' 'On the Tides;' 'On the History of Astronomy;' 'On the Essential Properties of Matter;' 'On Cohesion;' 'On the Sources and Effects of Heat;' 'On the Measures and the Nature of Heat;' 'On Electricity in Equilibrium;' 'On Electricity in Motion;' 'On Magnetism;' 'On Climates and Winds;' 'On Aqueous and Igneous Meteors;' 'On Vegetation;' 'On Animal Life;' 'On the History of Terrestrial Physics.'

From this division of Dr. Young's lectures, we shall extract some of his observations on the nature of heat, as they are in direct opposition to the popular theories which have so universally prevailed of late years, and which have been

adopted by the French philosophers as an essential part of their new system of chemistry.

'The degree of heat, as ascertained by a thermometer, is only to be considered as a relation to the surrounding bodies, in virtue of which a body supports the equilibrium of temperature when it is in the neighbourhood of bodies equally heated: thus, if a thermometer stands at 60° , both in a vessel of water, and in another of mercury, we may infer that the water and the mercury may be mixed without any change of their temperature; but the absolute quantity of heat contained in equal weights or in equal bulks of any two bodies of the same temperature, is by no means the same. Thus in order to raise the temperature of a pound of water from 50° to 60° , we need only to add to it another pound of water at 70° , which while it loses 10° of its own heat, will communicate 10° to the first pound; but the temperature of a pound of mercury at 50° may be raised 10° , by means of the heat imparted to it by mixing with it one-thirtieth part of a pound of water, at the same temperature of 70° . Hence we derive the idea of the capacities of different bodies for heat, which was first suggested by Dr. Irvine, the capacity of mercury being only about one-thirtieth part as great as that of water. And by similar experiments it has been ascertained, that the capacity of iron is one eighth of that of water, the capacity of silver one-twelfth, and that of lead one twenty-fourth. But for equal bulks of these different substances the disproportion is not quite so great; thus, copper contains nearly the same quantity of heat in a given bulk as water; iron, brass, and gold, a little less; silver $\frac{5}{6}$ as much, but lead and glass each about one half only.

'It is obvious that if the capacity for heat, in this sense of the word, were suddenly changed, it would immediately become hotter or colder, according to the nature of the change, a diminution of the capacity producing heat and an augmentation cold. Such a change of capacity is often a convenient mode of representation for some of the sources of heat and cold; thus when heat is produced by the condensation of a vapour or by the congelation of a liquid, we may imagine that the capacity of a substance is diminished, and that it overflows as a vessel would do if its dimensions were contracted. It appears also from direct experiments, in some such cases, that the capacity of the same substance is actually greater in a liquid than in a solid state, and in a state of vapour than in either; and both Dr. Irvine and Dr. Crawford have attempted to deduce from a comparison of the proportional capacities of water and ice, with the quantity of heat extricated during congelation, a measure of the whole heat, which is contained in these substances, and an estimation of the place which the absolute privation of heat or the natural zero, ought to occupy in the scale of the thermometer. Thus when a pound of ice at 32° , is mixed with a pound of water at 172° of Fahrenheit, the whole excess of 140° is absorbed in the conversion of ice into water, and the mixture is reduced to the temperature of 32° ; and, on the other hand, when a pound of ice (water?) freezes, a certain quantity of heat is evolved, which is probably capable of raising the temperature of a pound of water 140° , or that of 140

pounds a single degree. Dr. Crawford found, by means of other experiments, that a quantity of heat capable of raising the temperature of water 9° would raise that of ice as much as 10° ; hence he inferred that the capacity of ice was $\frac{9}{10}$ as great as that of water, and that if this capacity, instead of being reduced to $\frac{9}{10}$ had been wholly destroyed, the quantity of heat extricated would have been ten times as great, or about 1400° , which has therefore been considered as the whole quantity of heat contained in a pound of water at 32° , and the beginning of the natural scale has been placed about 1368° below the zero of Fahrenheit. Dr. Irvine makes the capacity of ice still less considerable, and places the natural zero about 900° below that of Fahrenheit.

‘If direct experiments on the quantities of heat, required for producing certain elevations of temperature, in different states of the same substance, compared in this manner with the omission or absorption of heat which takes place while those changes are performed, agreed with similar experiments made on different substances, there could be no objection to the mode of representation. But if it should appear that such comparisons frequently present us with contradictory results, we could no longer consider the theory of capacities for heat as sufficient to explain the phenomena. With respect to the simple changes, constituting congelation and liquefaction, condensation and evaporation, and compression and rarefaction, there appears to be at present no evidence of the insufficiency of this theory; it has not perhaps yet been shewn that the heat absorbed in any one change is always precisely equal to that which is emitted in the return of the substance to its former state, but nothing has yet been advanced which renders this opinion improbable, and the estimation of the natural zero, which is deduced from this doctrine, may at least be considered as a tolerable approximation.

‘If, however, we attempt to deduce the heat produced by friction and by combustion, from changes of the capacities of bodies, we shall find that the comparison of a very few facts is sufficient to demonstrate the imperfection of such a theory. Count Rumford found no sensible difference between the capacities of solid iron and of its chips; but if we even suppose, for the sake of the argument, that the pressure and friction of the borer had lessened the capacity of the iron one twelfth, so as to make it no greater than that of copper, we shall then find that one twelfth of the absolute heat of the chips, thus abraded, must have amounted to above 60,000 degrees of Fahrenheit, and consequently that the natural zero ought to be placed above 700,000 degrees below the freezing point, instead of 14 or 1500 only. It is, therefore, impossible to suppose that any alteration of capacities can account for the production of heat by friction: nor is it at all easier to apply this theory correctly to the phenomena of combustion. A pound of nitre contains about half its weight of dry acid, and the capacity of the acid, when diluted, is little more than half as great as that of water; the acid of a pound of nitre must therefore contain less heat than a quarter of a pound of water; but Lavoisier and Laplace have found, that the deflagration of a pound of nitre produces a quantity of heat sufficient to

melt twelve pounds of ice, consequently the heat extricated by the decomposition of a pound of dry nitrous acid must be sufficient to melt 24 pounds of ice; and even supposing the gases, extricated during the deflagration, to absorb no more heat than the charcoal contained, which is for several reasons highly improbable, it follows that a pound of water ought to contain at least as much heat as would be sufficient to melt 48 pounds of ice, that is, about 6720 degrees of Fahrenheit.

'In short, the further we pursue such calculations, the more we shall be convinced of the impossibility of applying them to the phenomena. In such a case as that of the nitrous acid, Dr. Black's term of latent heat might be thought applicable, the heat being supposed to be contained in the substance without being comprehended in the quantity required for maintaining its actual temperature. But even this hypothesis is wholly inapplicable to the extrication of heat by friction, where all the qualities of the substances concerned remain precisely the same after the operation, as before it. If any further argument were required in confirmation of the opinion, that the heat excited by friction is derived from a change of capacity, it might be obtained from Mr. Davy's experiment on the mutual friction of two pieces of ice, which converted them into water, in a room at the temperature of the freezing point: for in this case it is undeniable that the capacity of the water must have been increased during the operation; and the heat produced could not, therefore, have been occasioned by the diminution of the capacity of the ice.'

There is some inaccuracy of language in this reasoning; for if, as Dr. Young concludes, heat be not a substance, but a quality, is it not wholly incongruous to talk of the *quantity* of heat? Most commonly the expression, if justly fathomed, will appear to be elliptical. When in given circumstances we say that we apply a double quantity of heat, it means either a double quantity of matter heated to the same degree, or the same quantity of matter heated to such a degree as experiment shows to be equivalent to the former.

At the end of the descriptive or demonstrative lectures, Dr. Young has devoted one to the history of each science, and of the philosophers to whom they are indebted for their progress. Thus, besides the histories of astronomy and of terrestrial physics, which we have noticed above, we have a history of mechanics, another of hydraulics, and a third of optics. In these a cursory view is taken of the philosophical knowledge of the ancient philosophers, Thales, Pythagoras, Empedocles, Archimedes, &c. The middle centuries, though comparatively speaking they afford but scanty materials for the pen of the historian, are not passed over in silence; the two centuries which are past present us with a constellation of brilliant names, such as are not to be

found in all the ages of the world which have preceded them. Their number and merit in various departments of mathematical and physical science have rendered the business of selection difficult, without committing some injustice to departed genius. Chronological tables are added to each of these lectures, in which the names of the eminent philosophers of various ages are regularly arranged, and brought down to the termination of the last century. As these tables are consecrated to the honour of the defunct of course the names of some whose labours have most contributed to the advancement of science are excluded from them. But they are mentioned in the terms of respect due to their merit in the accounts of the various discoveries or improvements which have given lustre to their names.

We must add that this splendid and valuable work is illustrated by upwards of forty plates of diagrams, designs, machinery, and philosophical apparatus. Though we have happened to notice a particular figure, which is defective, we are far from wishing to insinuate that such is the general character of the execution of them. On the contrary, they are on the whole correct and elegant. It gives to the reader the advantage of finding in a narrow compass what in common encyclopedias are diffused through many bulky tomes, and the references are in immediate contact with the plates. The plates connected with the lectures on light and colours are elegantly coloured.

Of a work comprising materials of so much magnitude and embracing so great a diversity of subjects, it is impossible for us, were we even to extend our observations infinitely beyond the bounds which necessity prescribes to us, to give a proper analysis. We think Dr. Young's plan has been rather too comprehensive. The lectures on geography, on vegetation, and on animal life might have been omitted, without any detriment to his work. The reason he has assigned for not entering upon chemistry would have served for passing over these departments of knowledge. They form of themselves distinct branches of science; and it is therefore of little or no utility to treat of them in a slight, and consequently in a superficial manner. But the British public is under no small obligation to the labours of Dr. Young. Profoundly skilled himself in analytical and physical knowledge, he has collected, arranged, and condensed a body of information, which is not to be found in any other work in our language. If the general principles are such as are to be met with in anterior publications (for truth must be the same to all) there are particular parts which are peculiar to this. In mechanics, the passive strength of materials

of all kinds has been very fully investigated, and many new conclusions have been formed respecting it : in hydrodynamics the theory of waves has been simplified, and somewhat extended : and a similar method of reasoning has been applied to the circulation of the blood, the propagation of sound, and the vibrations of musical chords ; the doctrine of sound and of sounding bodies in general has also received some new illustrations, and the theory of music, and of musical intervals, has been particularly discussed : in optics, the forms of images have been more correctly investigated ; and a great variety of phenomena, with regard to light and colours, have received new and more satisfactory explanations. Many other improvements are to be found which our contracted limits will not permit us even to enumerate.

We must here take our leave of Dr. Young, by wishing him to receive an adequate reward for his labour. We do not think it needful to enter minutely into the contents of the second volume, which have no claim to the same title of 'a course of lectures' as the first, because the principal part of it consists of republications. We shall confine ourselves to an enumeration of the materials of which it is composed. They are, 1st, Mathematical elements of natural philosophy, deduced from axiomatical principles. This is nearly the syllabus of a course of lectures, which Dr. Young published some years ago. The second is a catalogue of works relating to natural philosophy, and the mechanical arts. This must have been a work of immense labour, and cannot fail to be of the greatest utility to students. The works are arranged very nearly in the order of the lectures. This catalogue occupies upwards of four hundred pages, and contains nearly twenty thousand articles : it has also several useful tables, as tables of logarithms, specific gravities, &c. The other articles are a collection of miscellaneous papers on various subjects of natural philosophy, which were originally published in the *Philosophical Transactions*, and other periodical publications.

ART. II.—*An Essay on the Theory of Money and the Principles of Commerce.* By John Wheatley. Vol. I. 4to. 14. 5s. boards. Cadell. 1807.

ART. III.—*Britain Independent of Commerce, or Proofs deduced from an Investigation into the true Causes of the Wealth of Nations, that our Riches, Prosperity and Power, are derived from Resources inherent in ourselves, and would not be affected even though our Commerce were annihilated.* 8vo. Price 3s. London. 1807.

FROM the different and contradictory opinions, which prevail on the principles of political œconomy, on the operations of money, and the true causes of the wealth of nations, it is clear that the subject is at present but imperfectly understood. Most of the statesmen who have been successively entrusted with the administration of the country, appear to have formed very false notions respecting these most interesting topics, and the most pernicious consequences have ensued. Any theory, considered apart from its practical operations, is a very harmless thing; but when a false theory of political œconomy has gotten possession of those persons who are entrusted with the destinies of an empire, the evil effects may soon be universally deplored. If the importance of the enquiry therefore be estimated by the possible magnitude of its results, there is not one which more deeply affects the happiness of mankind.

It was not till the last century that the principles of political œconomy became the subject of philosophical enquiry. Previous to the time of Mr. Hume, it seems to have been the general belief that the wealth of a nation consisted in the quantity of the precious metals which it contained. But Mr. Hume suggested the then startling paradox, that ‘an increase of money is not an increase of wealth;’ and that ‘the value of money is every where on a level.’ But though such are the principles which are deducible from his arguments, the object of Mr. Hume was not so much to erect a theory himself as to furnish hints and materials for the erection. Thus almost every political œconomist since the time of this great philosopher has been assisted by the depth and sagacity of his observations.

Though Mr. Hume did not make any direct attempt to refute the fallacious theory respecting the balance of trade, yet the general deductions from his reasoning contain the most ample refutation. This fallacious theory appears to have operated like a *will with a wisp*, to bewilder politicians

in a maze of error and confusion. Even the late Mr. Pitt, on whom such a weight of praise has been accumulated for his financial accomplishments, appears to have been misled by the vulgar prejudice, and to have talked of the balance of trade as if it were the only certain criterion of national prosperity. When it is said that the balance of trade is in our favour, the meaning, which is in general affixed to the words, is that for a certain portion of the goods which we export, we receive money instead of goods in return. But if an increase of money be not an increase of wealth, it is plain that this favourable balance, as it is called, is a chimerical supposition. When money is thus brought into a country, its only effect is to increase the circulating medium; for a nation with a large circulating medium is not on that account richer than a nation with a small; that is, it does not necessarily follow that the nation which has the larger circulating medium has a greater portion of manufactured produce or consumable commodities than the nation whose circulating medium is less. A nation with a circulating medium of only five millions might be as rich as if it had a circulating medium of fifty; the only difference would be that, in the first case, twenty shillings would command as much labour and purchase as much food, &c. as one hundred in the last. But in this instance, a circulating medium of five millions, would be more advantageous than one of fifty, as far as it affected our intercourse with foreign nations; because it would inevitably turn the course of exchange in our favour. For the exchange must naturally be in favour of that country where the money price of commodities is low. If fifty pounds in England would procure the same quantity of goods that sixty would on the continent, it is clear that all produce which sold in this country for fifty pounds, would, independent of all other augmentations of value, arising from conveyance, &c. &c. be worth sixty on the continent. Hence all bills drawn on London would bear a considerable premium, because if expended in London produce, they would go so much farther than if laid out in the produce of the continent. Hence the London market being the cheapest from the circulating medium being small, and the money price of commodities consequently low, that market would enjoy the undisputed preference to every other, till in the course of time, by the influx of money, the circulating medium of this country was increased so as to be restored nearly to a level with that of the continent. Thus we see the tendency of money to restore its own level; and this will always be the case where the circulating medium is composed of the precious metals rather than of paper and notes. But where the currency, instead of consisting of the precious metals which are an universal criterion of value, is made up of a paper manu-

facture, which has no, or only a very reduced value in any country, except in that in which it is fabricated, and where this paper is increased to a degree far beyond what is requisite as a circulating medium, it is clear that the money-price of all commodities will experience a rapid rise; and that the course of exchange will soon be against us. Nor, where the circulating medium is of this factitious kind, is there any natural way by which the equilibrium can be restored, as there is, where it consists only of the precious metals. For exportation may operate to restore the equilibrium in one case: but what is to do it in the other? Our paper, though light as air, is hardly worth the conveyance to a distant country. Thus, where the circulating medium is composed of paper with only a slight mixture of specie, the quantity of specie, which is left, will every day experience a diminution. For as the money price of commodities is high and the exchange consequently against us, but little specie will be imported from other countries: and as we must export specie for many of our foreign purchases, it is clear that there will be a continual diminution of the quantity which we possess on the one hand, without any sensible increase on the other. Where the circulating medium in any country is composed of money and of notes, and where the currency in notes is infinitely superior to that in money, there must in our dealings with other countries be two prices for every article; a price in money and a price in notes; and as the money-price will necessarily be the lowest, we shall send our money abroad and keep our paper at home. Hence, as the price of an ounce of gold in bullion will from the scarcity of the precious metals be much greater than that of an ounce in coin, the coin, which is in circulation, will be gradually melted down in order to be formed into bullion. Hence the quantity of specie which is in circulation, will undergo a speedy deterioration or diminution; and in proportion as the paper medium becomes greater, the monied medium will become less. Such is the effect which has evidently taken place in this country since the stoppage of all money payments at the bank, and the consequent inundation of the country with a paper circulation. Since that ill-omened period, the price of almost every commodity has been more than doubled in price; the circulating paper medium has been increased to an incredible amount; the exchange with other countries is turned against us; and specie has almost entirely disappeared. Such has been the effect of that fatal and ill-judged measure, which by deluging the country with a paper currency, has exhibited the exterior appearance of prosperity; but this appearance is in fact only like a coloured surface, which covers a mass of corruption and disease.

Those injudicious measures which Mr. Pitt, who rather deserves the name of an expert *paper-maker*, than an able financier, adopted with respect to the payments of the bank, were followed by the most pernicious results. The pretended design was to prevent the farther export of specie from the country, and to preserve the quantity which still remained. But the very opposite effect has taken place. Specie has been smuggled out of the kingdom to an immense amount; and the country does not probably at this moment possess one-fourth part of the specie which it did at the time when the restrictions were imposed. Hence then we see the folly of any political interference with the free course of trade or with the currency of the country. For had Mr. Pitt, instead of stopping the moneyed payments of the bank, suffered things to take their natural course, it is probable that the price of commodities, instead of an enormous rise, would have experienced a considerable fall. The effect of this diminution would have been a highly favourable turn in the course of exchange, and a rapid influx of specie into the country, till the moneyed currency was restored nearer to an equilibrium with that of other countries. For, where different countries are made to approximate to unity by the powerful agency of commercial intercourse, money, like every thing else, will find its level and will endeavour to preserve it. But this can only take place where the circulating medium of different countries consists of the precious metals, which have an universality of value, which paper coin can never attain; but Mr. Pitt by his financial metamorphosis of our currency into paper, and thus augmenting the nominal value of subsistence and of every species of manufacture, placed us immediately in a very unfavourable position with respect to our commercial relations with the continent. For as our circulating medium, which was thus turned into paper, no longer offered the same criterion of value which other nations possessed, we were reduced to the necessity of melting down for exportation the greater part of the coin which we had in circulation. And while the paper currency keeps increasing, as it has done for the last seven or eight years, the nominal value of every article must keep rising in proportion, till the money-price of commodities in this country, compared with that in other countries, will be so enormously disproportionate, as almost to preclude the possibility of any intercourse between us. Owing to the convulsed state of Europe, which in a commercial view has been rather favourable to the monopoly of this country, we have not yet felt the full weight of that evil which Mr. Pitt's stoppage of payments in specie, and his introduction of a paper currency, are inevitably calculated to produce. But when peace returns, and other

countries recover their commercial activity, it will be found that the present superabundance of our paper currency will operate most fatally against our intercourse with foreign powers. It will itself be found equal to any the severest non-importation law which America or which France can pass.

To save the country from this impending evil, and to prevent all persons of fixed incomes and limited annuities from being reduced to a state of famine and despair, which must be the ultimate effect of the present rapid increase of paper and depreciation of money, it is absolutely necessary that we should immediately take proper steps, gradually to diminish the enormous mass of our paper circulation : WITHOUT THIS, NO CHECK WHATEVER CAN BE OPPOSED TO THE TREMENDOUS AUGMENTATION OF PRICES, AND ALARMING DEPRECIATION OF MONEY. Had Lord Grenville continued in office he would soon have contrived a remedy for the evil, which he wanted not the sagacity to discern. His lordship, though inferior to Mr. Pitt in the blaze of rhetoric, was yet far superior to him in solidity of judgment, and in the extent and depth of his information respecting the true principles of political œconomy. Lord Grenville, instead of giving any direct encouragement to that great political enormity of Mr. Pitt, the indefinite multiplication of the paper currency, would have caused the Bank of England and the provincial banks, after the expiration of three months from a given period, to have called in their one pound notes; after the expiration of three months more their two pound notes; and their five pound notes after the expiration of a similar period; and he would finally have left in circulation no note below the value of ten pounds. This plan, though it did not go to the whole length which we might wish in restricting the paper circulation, would yet have been attended with the most beneficial consequences to the country. It would have had a most favourable influence on the course of exchange, which is now against us; it would have caused an influx of money into the kingdom, if not equal to the present paper currency, at least adequate to all the purposes of a circulating medium; and, as it would have lowered the nominal money price of every commodity, there is no man in the country with a fixed and limited income who would not have had ample reason to be grateful for the measure, and to celebrate the wisdom and the virtue of the minister by whom it was proposed.

As the temperate and judicious scheme of Lord Grenville would soon have caused all the small notes to be withdrawn from the circulation, the whole retail trade, and all the smaller pecuniary transactions of the country, would have

been conducted by the medium of money; and though a paper currency might be employed in larger payments, and in more important dealings, yet this currency, subject to such wholesome limitations, could never have the pernicious effect of raising the money-price of commodities to an exorbitant degree, where the precious metals constituted the only circulating medium for all the less payments and ordinary transactions of the country. For prices can never be raised beyond what the quantity of circulating medium can supply. Where the circulating medium consists of the precious metals, the increase cannot be artificially or suddenly affected, but depends on causes which are slow and gradual in producing their effects. In this case therefore, the price of commodities, cannot experience that extravagant, rapid and enormous rise, which, owing to the mischievous facilities for augmenting the relative quantum of a paper-currency, we have lately had so much reason to deplore. On this and on other questions of political œconomy, Mr. Wheatley reasons with considerable perspicuity and force. With respect to the depreciation in the value of money, which has been gradually taking place in this country, from the time of the conquest to our own, Mr. W. has adopted the calculations of the late Sir George Shuckburgh; a gentleman who was well known to us, and whom we know to have been seldom surpassed in the minute accuracy of his details. The whole organization of his brain seemed formed for the nicest processes of algebra, and the exactness of the man was as visible in the interior management of his house as it was in his philosophical speculations. The depreciation of the circulating medium, which operates so fatally against the middle classes, and indeed all the most vital interests of the country, has proceeded with an accelerated pace since the stoppage of the bank; nor is it likely that this increased velocity of depreciation will be at all diminished, till effectual measures are taken to diminish the paper-circulation, and to compel the bank to resume the payment, at least, of its smaller notes. The bank has never denied its ability to pay the amount of its notes, why then should its non-payment any longer be suffered to subject it to the imputation of insolvency? If the idea of the insolvency of the bank were once to become prevalent, its notes would soon be at a discount, and the utmost distress and confusion would ensue. But if we are to suffer the bank to issue paper to an unlimited amount, without being obliged to return any thing like an equivalent for the paper which it issues, who is, for any great length of time, to answer for its solvency?

'Since the restriction,' says Mr. Wheatley, 'has authorised the issue of small notes, and suffered them to supply the place of guineas,

advantage is taken of the privilege to extend the amount of the paper beyond the whole value of the specie that was previously current; and no opening is left for the readmission of coin. If, therefore, by capture or purchase, any considerable quantity were imported, the accession would have no other effect than to aggravate the pre-existing excess of the currency; and by depressing the exchange to a lower standard, cause an immediate departure of the money to other countries. Without the suppression, therefore, of the small notes of the bank of England, no coin can be maintained in the metropolis, and without the suppression of the small notes of provincial banks, no coin can be maintained in the country.

If, therefore, the object of the government be, by continuing the restriction, to prevent the exportation of the specie, it is very clear that that object has not been obtained; for the specie of the country, after being first melted down, has been exported to a much larger amount since the restriction than it ever was before. And that exportation will continue till the restriction is removed; when the paper-currency being diminished, the price of commodities will fall, and an influx of specie into the country will gradually take place.

The great depreciation of money in this country during the last century, the effects of which are at present so severely felt by the middle classes, and by every person of limited income in the community, is principally owing to the more general issue of paper during that, than any former period. A new and artificial circulating medium was invented, which has almost caused the old currency of the precious metals to disappear; and, as the same natural limitations are not opposed to the increase of the new currency as to that of the old, notes have been multiplied to an extravagant amount; and much beyond what was necessary for the purposes of a common criterion of value or a medium of circulation. The pernicious consequence of this lavish creation of paper-money has been, that the price of every article has been raised much beyond what could have taken place in the common course of things. It is not a little remarkable that Adam Smith should not have discerned this mischievous influence of a paper circulation; and that he should not have seen how easily the Bank of England and other banks might multiply notes beyond the quantity of specie which they are supposed to represent. But philosophers sometimes overlook what is visible to the common sense of ordinary men. While they are endeavouring to grope their way to the bottom of the well, they do not notice the striking appearances which are perceptible on the very surface of things. But in the time of Adam Smith, prices were far

below their present enormity of rise ; paper had not become a *forced currency* ; and specie was still visible in all the retail business and the smaller payments of the country. The till of the tradesman was not ornamented with one pound and two pound notes ; or, as is the case in Birmingham and the neighbourhood, with card tickets for five shillings and half a crown.

The power of coining money has heretofore been esteemed one of the great prerogatives of the sovereign, but to suffer the present unrestrained emission of paper is to allow every fraudulent and enterprizing individual to erect a mint in his house and to coin money at his will. Were the paper, of which this money is made, as difficult to procure as bullion, there might be little danger of the permission, for the quantity would be limited by the natural scarcity of the material ; but five-farthings-worth of paper is sufficient for the representation of as many hundred or as many thousand pounds. When we allow any individuals to coin as much paper-money as they please, and particularly when we authorise a large chartered company to issue paper without being compelled to give any equivalent but paper in return, it is clear that we hold out an almost irresistible temptation to an extravagant increase of paper, not only beyond what the individuals have specie to answer, but beyond what they have property of any kind to pay. Mr. Spence indeed thinks, p. 70, that the issue of paper cannot exceed the absolute necessities of a circulating medium, but his hypothesis is refuted by the sturdy evidence of facts. The depression of the exchange evinces that the quantity of our factitious circulating medium has been increased far beyond what the necessities of trade require ; and the late exorbitant rise in the price of every article, cannot be accounted for on any other supposition. For, as there is a natural tendency in money, where its operations are not impeded by artificial means, to preserve its level, the money-price of labour and of produce in this country would never have been so very disproportionate to that of other countries, if the circulating medium had not been raised to an extravagant pitch, by factitious contrivances, and the precious metals had not been replaced by a superfluous quantity of paper coin. No man will deny but that a banker may, and that many bankers actually do contrive expedients to issue more notes than they have property to pay. Now all such notes, when they are thrown into the circulation, must be considered as constituting an excess of currency beyond what the necessities of trade require. From such an excess, the depreciation of money, and the augmentation of prices

must necessarily ensue. It must at the same time be allowed that this power of fabricating paper-money at will, has given rise to an host of men, who, *without any real capital*, speculate on the fluctuations of the market, and indeed on almost every vendible commodity. Now, what extraordinary facilities are afforded to the execution of such projects by the help of a paper-circulation ! For bankers are seldom found unwilling either to engage in such adventures themselves, or to assist those who do, by the loan of their paper-coin ; and often without any other security than the probable profit of the speculation. Here then we find persons not only issuing notes beyond what they have property to answer, but lending them to promote the interested schemes of persons who have no property at all. Will any one pretend that, by this means, the country is not inundated by a pernicious superfluity of paper ? that prices are not raised to an unnatural pitch ? and that money is not made to experience a most ruinous depreciation ? As far as a circulating medium is the criterion of real value, and the representative sign of actual, tangible, and visible property, it may be said not to exceed the necessities of trade : but all beyond this is not only wantonly superfluous, but fatally pernicious. Such however is the present portentous condition of this country. We have a circulating medium far beyond our necessities ; and diametrically opposite to our interest abroad, and to our happiness at home. We have a circulating medium, a large portion of which is the representative of——what ?——of something as delusive as a dream, and as attenuated as air. But this airy phantom, this imaginary reality has in it a fatal potency of influence, which, if it be not counteracted by the wisdom of the government, will accelerate the ruin of the empire. It has already abridged our comforts, multiplied our difficulties, and augmented our distress ; and if it be suffered to continue, the effect will be ruin and despair. If lord Grenville had continued in office, the evil which we dread would have been gradually mitigated till it was finally removed : but the measures of his successors are but little calculated either to excite our hope, or to invigorate our confidence. Those able and upright ministers, in whom we might have trusted, are driven from the helm ; and in this perilous period, the guidance of the state is committed to men without either ability or virtue.

Mr. Spence has endeavoured to prove that the present prosperity of Britain is independent of her commerce ; but, though we may admire the ingenuity, we are far from assenting to the solidity of his argument. Nor indeed should

we be much delighted with that species of prosperity which would leave the Thames without ships, and cause the grass to grow in the streets and squares of the metropolis. Mr. Spence admits the favourable action of our manufactures on our agriculture; but he does not seem to be sensible of the equally favourable action of our commerce on our manufactures. Now, if commerce increase the mart for our manufactures, and supply employment to our manufacturers, it must be regarded as connected with our agricultural improvement. Mr. Spence may discern no natural connection between the motions of a ship at sea, and the activity of a plough on land; but it is certain that every bale of cotton or bag of spice, or any other useful or pleasurable commodity of any description, which we import from the east or from the west, tends, if not by a direct, at least by a circuitous process, to stimulate the industry which increases the produce and improves the fertility of the soil. The object of the land-owner is to dispose of his surplus produce for articles of present gratification, or more permanent use. Such articles are either of domestic or of foreign growth; either the product of our own industry, or of that of other countries; but, as far as we receive commodities from abroad in exchange for others of indigenous growth, or of native manufacture, such commodities certainly tend to enrich the country by the beneficial influence which they exert on that domestic industry which is the great source of wealth. Man is anxious for variety in the objects of his gratification; and such variety, where it does not violate any moral rule, must be regarded as a fair object of his pursuit and a source of reasonable enjoyment. Now commerce tends greatly to multiply the objects of innocent gratification, to augment the stock of pleasurable sensation, and to enable us to taste in a greater degree and to a wider extent than we otherwise could, the varied beneficence of God. We do not say that a nation may not subsist without commerce; for we are convinced of the contrary; but we assert, what no one but the stern ascetic will deny, that commerce tends to increase the multiplicity of our social and our sensitive enjoyments. As far therefore as we connect prosperity with happiness, and they are in most cases convertible terms, we shall be convinced that prosperity is not so entirely independent of commerce as Mr. Spence would lead us to imagine; and that Great Britain, in losing her commerce, would part with one great source of her gratification, of her wealth and power; with that which contributes, in no small degree, to animate her industry, and to fertilize her soil, while it renders her the sovereign of the maritime world.

ART. IV.—*Medical Reports of Cases and Experiments, with Observations, chiefly derived from Hospital Practice: To which are added, an Enquiry into the Origin of Canine Madness; and Thoughts on a Plan for its Extirpation from the British Isles. By Samuel Argent Bardsley, M.D. M.R.M.S. Edinburgh, and M.S. London; Physician to the Manchester Infirmary, Dispensary, Lunatic Hospital, and Asylum; and Vice-President of the Literary and Philosophical Society at Manchester. 8vo. 8s. Bickerstaff. 1807.*

DR. Bardsley has been physician to the Manchester Infirmary during a period of sixteen years. We have so often seen these situations sought for merely for the sake of private views, and the occupation of them rendered subservient entirely to selfish purposes, that we felt a real pleasure when we found a gentleman applying advantages which his situation affords him, to the more legitimate and noble purpose of advancing science and improving the medical profession. We could mention at this moment a large county hospital, which has for several years been absolutely without the assistance of a regular physician; the senior surgeon performing the office, and preventing, by the weight of his influence, the vacant appointment from being filled up; because, forsooth, such an appointment might have a chance of establishing, and bringing into notice some one who might interfere with his own professional emoluments. What good can be expected from institutions conducted upon such sordid and mercenary principles? The volume before us exhibits a pleasing testimony that the Infirmary at Manchester is in the hands of men of more expanded minds, who are convinced that in undertaking an office of much trust and great importance, they become morally responsible to the public, if they fail to fulfil the obligations which it imposes, and to satisfy the benevolent intentions of those who support the institution.

This publication contains several memoirs on medical subjects, unconnected with each other, and arranged in no particular order. We propose, therefore, to follow the author in the course which he has himself taken; and to present our readers with a short view of the principal facts which are contained in these reports as they occur.

The first report is entitled, *Of Chronic Rheumatism*. The author has used this term in a sense, we think, more extensive than is proper, including under it *lumbago sciatica*, disease of the hip joint, that affection lately termed by Dr,

Haygarth nodosity of the joints, besides the two particular cases of pain of the calves of the legs, the nature of which was not well ascertained. For this reason we think this paper less instructive than it might otherwise have been made, since several of these complaints appear to us perfectly distinct in their nature, and requiring therefore opposite modes of treatment. On the use of the *warm bath*, he does not speak highly. In very old rheumatisms, and in sciatica and lumbago, he pronounces them mischievous. We cannot avoid remarking how much this account differs from that lately published by Dr. Falconer on the same subject. The *tepid bath* he has found more useful, but still he thinks it a medicine of inferior value to the topical, and sometimes the general use of hot water in the form of vapour. In rigid and contracted limbs, and in protracted cases of all descriptions, directing the steam of water upon the part by means of a pipe, connected with a boiler, is a safe and often a successful remedy. It is made more efficacious still by using a stimulant liniment during the process, and following it up with the application of *electricity*. Galvanism has not hitherto succeeded with Dr. B. in any case where electricity and other powerful remedies have failed. He mentions also with approbation the use of repeated topical bleeding and issues, blisters and rubefacients. One of the last descriptions which he recommends, is not, we believe, in general use. It is a plaister of gum ammoniac with muriate of ammonia sprinkled upon the surface. This is simple, convenient, and is considerably stimulant. In the use of internal remedies in chronic rheumatism, Dr. Bardsley complains of having met with much disappointment. Sodorifics, though they give temporary relief, seem injurious, if pushed to any great extent. Guaiacum has proved the most efficacious of all the internal remedies that were employed. The *oleum-jecoris aselli*, or cod-liver oil, has proved a medicine of efficacious, but limited powers, failing frequently in mild and common affections; but in some instances, where all other means have been useless, it has operated in a manner so decidedly beneficial, as to excite astonishment. We are informed that the quantity of this article used annually in the Infirmary exceeds forty gallons; an amazing consumption of an article so nauseous as to preclude its introduction into general practice, and no mean proof of its utility. Dr. B. has been tempted to try the power of arsenic in very obstinate and intractable cases; and has given an abstract from the infirmary book of two cases, treated in this manner, in which the success was very striking. The dose was four drops of Fowler's mineral solution

thrice a day in a boy of eleven, and about twice the same quantity in an adult. When used with so much prudence, we have little doubt that this substance may prove a most powerful remedy. Another case is given of the disease, termed by Dr. Haygarth *nodosity of the joints*, in which the arsenical solution entirely failed, but which was completely cured by a regular mercurial course. We can hardly help suspecting that this was an irregular syphilitic affection. From the two cases of pains in the calves of the legs, we cannot collect much. We have seen the gout attack in this form. The last article of this part of the collection, is an account of a peculiar species of chronic rheumatism induced by exposure to inclement weather, whilst the body is under the influence of mercury. The symptoms are illustrated by the history of a case of this description, and the cure is said to be effected, by restoring the mercurial action, by again impregnating the habit with the metal. This article we think well worthy the attention of practitioners; but the medical reader will perceive that excepting this and the evidence regarding the mineral solution, the practice of Dr. Bardsley is nearly the same as that which is pretty generally established. Candid and unexaggerated statements of results are however to be always received with approbation.

Diabetes mellitus, is the subject of the second report. Its great object is to enforce the observation of the practice, introduced by Dr. Rollo, of causing these patients to abstain entirely from the use of all vegetable aliment. Dr. Bardsley has treated several upon this principle. We shall give the result of his experience, in his own words :

General Inferences resulting from the foregoing Cases, Observations, and Experiments.—1st. That it is to the sagacity of Dr. Home, we are chiefly indebted, for hints towards a successful mode of treating *Diabetes Mellitus*, and that Dr. Rollo is justly entitled to the praise of greatly enlarging our views, both of the theory, and practice of this disease.

2nd. That an abstinence from vegetable, and the employment of animal food, together with the nitric acid, blisters to the loins, opiates, and the warm or tepid bath, comprehend the general method of cure; and that bark, astringents, and alkalies, either alone, or combined with sulphur (such as the hepatized ammonia, recommended by Dr. Rollo) afforded little, if any assistance in subduing *Diabetes*, or even arresting the progress of its characteristic symptoms.

3rd. That the above means, if duly persisted in, are capable of effectually curing *Diabetes Mellitus* in its incipient state, when unaccompanied with any dangerous organic affection; and that even in the most acute, and aggravated instances of the complaint, a

steady perseverance in a proper regimen will arrest the progress of the Diabetic symptoms, and bring the patient into a state of convalescence.

4th. That in order to restore the patient to general health and strength, an admixture of vegetable, with animal food, is to be gradually and cautiously entered upon, as soon as ever the saccharine impregnation of the urine, and the voracious appetite have disappeared.

5th. That it appears from Barratt's case, great attention should be paid to the state of the *primæ viæ*, after the cessation of the Diabetic symptoms, as the tone of the stomach remains, for some time, much impaired, and the bowels also become torpid, and are liable to dangerous inflammation, if evacuations be not speedily procured.

6th. That indulgence in spirituous liquors, exposure to cold and wet, a habit of profuse sweating, the immoderate use of acid drinks (such as sour butter-milk and whey) excessive labour, joined to hard-fare, and the depressing passions, are among the most frequent predisposing causes of the disease.

7th. That Phymosis is no more than an occasional symptom in Diabetes Mellitus, and can only happen when the prepuce, in its natural state, is so far elongated as to cover the glans; and that it seldom, if ever, does occur, until the disease has been some time established.

8th. That in some very protracted and severe cases, a long and rigid abstinence from every species of vegetable matter, was not found adequate to destroy the existence of sugar in the urine; for when the sensible qualities of this fluid did not point out the least saccharine impregnation, yet, on exposing an extract obtained from it by evaporation, to the test of chemical analysis, it was found to contain more or less of the oxalic acid.

9th. That the liquid *egesta*, in the confirmed and more advanced stages of Diabetes Mellitus, almost uniformly exceeded the amount of the liquid *ingesta*; and that sometimes the combined quantity of both solid and fluid *ingesta*, did not equal the urinary *egesta*. It is therefore highly probable, that the excess of the latter was supplied by increased absorption of fluids from either the surface of the skin or lungs.

10th. That Diabetes Mellitus is frequently accompanied with Pulmonic disease, and often terminates in *Phthisis Pulmonalis*.

11th. That males are more liable to the disease than females; and that this may perhaps arise from the greater exposure of the former to those occasional causes which are enumerated in No. 6.

12th. That the excess of extractive matter in diabetic urine, is, for the most part, in proportion to the violence and severity of the disease, especially when the patient is under no restraint of diet; and that the quantity of this extractive matter is speedily reduced by the use of animal food, and this reduction, to nearly the healthy standard, is one of the leading indications of an abatement of the malady.

13th. That there exists a deficiency, if not the total want of the

urea, in the urine of such cases of Diabetes Mellitus as are distinctly marked, and where the disease has attained its acme; and that the restoration of this principle to the urine, is among the most certain signs of a removal of the disease.'

We must, however, acknowledge that we are not entirely satisfied with the evidence which is produced in favour of this practice, and that we are doubtful whether it has any other effects than that of altering the course of the symptoms. Slight cases seemed cured: but they might perhaps have been cured by other means. It is probable, that such cases often occur, and recover, unnoticed both by the patient and his attendants. After one of the cures, the man died in three weeks from enteritis. Dr. Bardsley thinks this accidental; but we must have many more facts before us to induce us to give a full assent to this conclusion. It will be seen that in the analysis of diabetic urine Dr. B. agrees with Mr. Cruickshank, Dr. Rollo and Messrs. Nicholas and Guendeville, that it is wholly deficient in urea. In this he is at variance with Dr. Bostock, whose experiments we noticed in our review of the 6th volume of the Memoirs of the London Medical Society. In justice to Dr. Bostock we must add, that in a correspondence with Dr. Bardsley on the subject he seems disposed very candidly to acknowledge himself to have been deceived.

We are next presented with a report on the *Effects of Galvanism in Paralysis*. Some of the cases are very much in favour of the practice. Dr. B. infers from them upon the whole, that the efficacy of galvanism in paralysis, is superior to that of electricity. In their sensible effects upon the body they agree, both increasing the action of the arterial system, exciting strong muscular contractions, heat and even blisters upon the skin, and, when too powerfully administered, producing sickness and fainting. The galvanic influence ought to be applied to the brain with the greatest caution. Five plates, two inches and a quarter square, are in general sufficiently powerful at first; and even these appear sometimes to have too violent an operation, producing pain in the head and vertigo, tremor, convulsive sobs, and tears. The sensibility is sometimes so much impaired, that the patient seems insusceptible of the galvanic stimulus by the ordinary means; or it may happen, that the skin from its thickness forms a barrier to the transmission of the fluid. These circumstances render it necessary to excoriate the surface by a very small blister, and to apply the metallic points to the raw skin. After this process, however, the pain and agitation produced by the operation is such, that the irrita-

tion must be lowered by lessening the number of plates employed, and so adapting the stimulus to the susceptibility of the parts. It must also be added, that where no advantage is derived from the process, the experiment should be relinquished, facts having occurred which show that in this case it may be injurious.

In a report on the medical effects of the white oxyd of bismuth, Dr. Marcet's account of the utility of this substance in pains of the stomach, which seem dependant upon a simple irritability of membranes, is fully confirmed. Indeed the testimonies given of its efficacy are so strong and decisive, that we hope to see it introduced into general practice. It seems particularly calculated to correct the acidity which is so abundantly produced in dyspeptic stomachs, and hitherto no injurious effects have been remarked from its employment.

Miscellaneous Observations on Canine and Spontaneous Hydrophobia conclude the volume. A case of hydrophobia, deemed spontaneous, occurred to Dr. Bardsley many years ago, which he published in the 4th volume of the *Memoirs of the Literary and Philosophical Society of Manchester*. This case (which is valuable in itself and very well related) is here republished, and prefixed to a survey of the principal facts and opinions regarding this disease, which have been laid before the public. It seems agreed, that from forty days to three months is the more common interval between the infection and the appearance of hydrophobic symptoms. Instances have been recorded which Dr. B. allows to be authentic, of this interval having been extended to a year and upwards. But we must pause before we agree with him in regarding all the examples which have been given, of its being much longer still, as five, seven, twelve or even forty years, as fabulous. If this period be sometimes one whole year, there can be no reason assigned, *à priori*, why it may not be two or even twenty years. In a disease, which in its most frequent form is extremely rare, the anomalies and varieties must be so very uncommon as to make it almost impossible to collect unexceptionable evidence on the subject. But analogy does not appear to us unfavourable to the hypothesis, which Dr. B. controverts. For if a particle of vaccine or variolous virus applied to an infant, has the power of producing an obvious change in the constitution, which continues during the whole remaining term of life, what difficulty is there in conceiving that the hydrophobic poison may also effect a permanent though visible change, which may render the subject liable to a peculiar train of symptoms, when certain powerful oc-

casional causes are applied? The second conclusion is, that canine madness has been produced by the mere contact of the saliva of a rabid animal, especially to parts of a thin and delicate texture; but not by the breath or other effluvia of the animal. Thirdly; that all the pathognomic symptoms of the disease have been produced independent of the bite of a rabid animal.

In considering the origin of the disease, Dr. B. has taken more pains than perhaps was necessary to refute the opinions of former observers on that subject. These opinions are most of them obsolete, and that in the dog the disease is always propagated from one of the species to another seems to have obtained the general assent of dispassionate enquirers. In the course of this investigation the doctor very judiciously consulted some gentlemen, whose pursuits make them familiar with the diseases of the canine species. We meet with one piece of evidence from a gentleman of this description, which appears to us very important, and not coinciding entirely with the common opinions; we shall take this opportunity of inserting it:

‘ Mr. Trevelyan is indeed firmly persuaded, contrary to the established opinion, that the canine virus is equally as contagious as the small pox and measles; and he supports his opinion by the following statement of facts. ‘After losing my first pack (he remarks) I ordered all the straw to be taken out, the benches to be scalded with boiling water, and all the joints, cracks, &c. to be painted over, and filled up with hot diluted tar; the walls to be white washed, the pavement thoroughly washed and cleaned with hot water. Being thus secure from infection (as I then thought) I collected another pack of hounds; yet madness occasionally broke out year after year. Thus kept in perpetual alarm, I ordered all the second pack to be destroyed. After having reasoned much within myself on the subject, I took up the idea, that the cause of the infection had not been entirely removed, notwithstanding my former precautions. I therefore ordered the pavement, in which the saliva, or other tainted excretions of the animals might have penetrated and lodged, to be taken up, together with all the earth in which it was bedded, and thrown into the river, and the kennel to be new painted, fumigated, white-washed, &c. and ever after the pack was free from infection. What still further strengthens my opinion of the subtle and contagious nature of the canine virus is the following fact; a game keeper, who lived at a distance (eight miles) assisted me daily in dissecting, &c. the hounds which died of madness. It happened once, that when he returned home, not having washed his hands after the operation, he had occasion to attend upon two bitches belonging to his master, that had whelps, which were confined in separate places half a mile distant from each other. When entering their respective kennels, with meat in his hands, they leaped up to smell at it, and instantly appeared

disturbed, rubbing their noses among the grass, &c. Both these animals shortly went mad.

Dr. Bardsley concludes with proposing that all dogs should be submitted to a quarantine, of not less than two months continuance, as the only effectual method of extirpating this dreadful disease. Mr. Meynell has long ago established the utility of such a measure, by successfully adopting it for the preservation of his own hounds. Doubtless, our insular situation is peculiarly favourable to the introduction and enforcement of such a regulation. But the political aspect of the times is such as to banish from the mind all thoughts of matters unconnected with our exterior security.

The business of improvement in domestic regulations of the most urgent necessity must be deferred, till the more happy times, (as we fondly hope that they will prove) of the succeeding generation.

ART. IV.—*A connected Series of Notes on the chief Revolutions of the principal States which composed the Empire of Charlemagne, from his Coronation in 814 to its Dissolution in 1806, &c. By Charles Butler, Esq. 8vo. White. 1807.*

IN watching the progress of a fortunate usurper, our eyes have been so long habituated to revolutions that 'the fall of empires and the crash of worlds' are but the familiar topics of our daily conversation. In the space of twelve or fourteen years, we have seen Holland, Switzerland, Milan, Venice, Tuscany, and Naples, states which have long stood foremost in the second order at least of the European commonwealth, successively swallowed up in the vortex of the French revolution. We have seen Spain, from a dangerous rival, become an abject vassal. All the rich provinces of the ancient house of Burgundy, the fairest possessions of the proud ecclesiastical electors, the estates of the martial sovereigns of Savoy, circumscribed by the unalterable barriers of nature, have been portioned into departments of France; Suabia, Bavaria, and both the Saxons have become her confederate slaves; Austria has yielded some of her oldest hereditary provinces and all her most sacred rights; Prussia depends only on the fortune of a most unequal war, in which she can no longer herself sustain a part, for her exemption from absolute annihilation. Perhaps, even now a victory or a peace (alike favourable to the conqueror's designs) has sealed the fate of all that remained of Germany.

Events of every day excite no surprize or admiration. Considering each province, as it has successively become a prey to the devouring deluge, in the light of a single unconnected state, we have mourned its fall for an hour, and the next have forgotten its independent existence. But, when we look on the continent of Europe in the light of one great empire, divided by the revolutions of war and of time, but still deriving from one common stock, and deducing its forms of governments and the titles of its sovereigns from one general source, through a successive period of ten centuries, and when we consider that in ten years this vast fabric has been utterly demolished, so that not a vestige of it now subsists, we look round us with astonished awe, and the most splendid pages of past history shrink into nothing on comparison with the important period on which our own lot has been cast.

We mark them not, as one by one they fall,
But gaze and wonder when we miss them all.

The abdication of Francis the Second in the summer of last year finally dissolved that venerable phantom which was all that still remained of the empire of the west. To trace the rise, the divisions, the decline and fall of that majestic fabric with due relation to the whole and to every part of the system, is a province well worthy of the historian and philosopher. Mr. Butler, in the little work before us, has sketched the general outline of such a picture, and marked with sufficient distinctness those more prominent features on which the character of the piece would principally depend.

The empire of Charlemagne comprehended the whole of modern departmental France, Spain from the Pyrenees to the Ebro, Germany from the Rhine to the Oder, Austria to the south of the Danube, and all Italy except a few independent Greek Lombard territories in the kingdom of Naples. The first division took place among the children of his son Lewis the Debonnaire. The monarchy was re-united under Charles the Fat, and finally separated upon his death. Germany, Italy, and France formed the three greater kingdoms into which it was divided. The kingdom of Lorraine (which added to the modern province of that name, Alsace, the ecclesiastical electorates, and the Netherlands) and the two kingdoms of Transjurane, and Cisjurane, Burgundy, (comprehending Provence, Dauphinè, the Lyonois, Franche-comptè, Switzerland and Savoy, and separated from each other by the chain of the Jura) gradually arose on the frontiers of the former, and were erected into independent states. Still, all these different monarchs derived from Charlemagne, and acknow-

ledged the superior rank, if not the superior power, of him, on whom the imperial title happened to fall. The first great subsequent changes were effected in consequence of the imbecility of the sovereigns and encreasing power of the great lords in France and Germany. The imperial dignity passed out of the Carlovingian family and became elective after the death of Lewis III. in 903. The descendants of Charlemagne possessed the sceptre of France near a century longer, till it was wrested from their grasp by Hugh Capet, the most powerful of their vassals, who boasted some alliance to the reigning race in consequence of his descent from Pepin of Heristhal. From this fortunate usurper, the sceptre of France has passed in legitimate* succession to his descendants through a period of 800 years, of which the leading political feature has uniformly been the gradual augmentation of monarchical power on the decline and fall of the feudal aristocracy and the total suppression of the popular, or third order of the state, till, finally, towards the close of the last century, the cord, stretched to its utmost tension, suddenly gave way, the oppressed ranks of society rose with the force of elasticity above their natural level, and, in short, the revolution was accomplished, not by the writings of Rousseau, Voltaire, or d'Alembert, nor by the seditious harangues of Mirabeau, but by the certain though silent operations of moral necessity.

In Germany, the empire of Charlemagne has been overturned nearly at the same time with, and in immediate consequence of, the fall of the Capetian dynasty, by a chain of causes and effects totally different in the beginning, but all clearly conducing to the same end. The introduction and long continuance of an elective right in the great potentates strengthened and confirmed in the empire that feudal system which the establishment and long hereditary succession of one powerful family subdued and annihilated in France. Every feudal noble, in many respects independent by the general constitution of European states, became much more so under the weak government of an equal, often of an inferior chieftain. In Italy, protected by the increasing and overshadow-

* In the course of this almost unexampled length of hereditary succession 'it has twice happened,' says Mr. B. p. 226, 'that, from the want of male issue, the lineal line has stopped, and it has become necessary to have recourse to the next collateral line.' This event has, in fact, happened *four times*, (that is, on an average, once every two hundred years) first, by the introduction of the house of Valois after Charles IV.—secondly, of the branch of Orleans after Charles VIII.—thirdly, of the branch of Angoulesme after Louis XII.—and lastly, of the house of Bourbon on the extinction of that of Valois, after Henry III.

ing power of the popes, most of the states gradually shook off every badge of subordination, and became in title, as well as in reality, independent of the emperor. The constitution of Germany, by the same degrees, acquired the form of a social league or confederacy of princes, united together under one head, of very limited and circumscribed authority, for common defence and protection. The golden bull of Charles IV. confirmed this singular establishment by something like a regular code of laws, and, when the house of Austria at last obtained exclusive possession of the Cæsarean throne, they found it guarded by barriers which their great and continually encreasing family influence was insufficient to overturn or weaken. But the constitution was originally defective. The people, whatever power they might gradually acquire in individual states, were wholly excluded from all concern in the national government. The balance of power among the members of the league was continually interrupted by the ambition and fortune of particular families. It was destroyed by the circumstance that many of the preponderating states became united by marriage or conquest to foreign powers. The progress of civilization and the total change of manners throughout Europe, ill accorded with the forms of polity adopted by a barbarous age; yet those forms remained, for there existed no where a power of altering or modifying them. Under all these disadvantages and discrepancies, the empire of Germany could not have subsisted to the beginning of the 19th century had it not fallen under the dominion of a great and illustrious family, of power sufficient to overawe the confederate states, and to oppose itself with effect to the aggressions of the most formidable foreign rivals, though not to effect any change in the fundamental constitution of the government. On this power, therefore, it is evident that the existence of the Germanic empire absolutely depended. France, long its most fearful rival, was, by means of the extraordinary energies which the revolution had given it, become infinitely its superior. Austria was shaken to its foundations by the long war which terminated in the peace of Amiens, and the blow was severely felt from one extremity to the other of the empire. Peace was concluded, but Germany was no longer the same. Dismembered of some of its states, altered in the interior of almost all, according to the policy of its enemy, or the caprices of its lord, it was ready to crumble into dust at the slightest touch. The war again broke out. Austria was conquered in the battle of Austerlitz. The slight bond of union that yet held the states together was broken, and Francis the Second at last formally

dissolved the antient confederacy which he now found to exist no longer but in name.

We have here mentioned only the circumstances which led immediately to the fall of Charlemagne's empire. Mr. B.'s series of notes is intended to convey clearly and concisely a view of the principal causes which in the succession of ages have combined to produce that effect. Those which, for the last century, have most manifestly accelerated it, appear to be, 1st, the war for the succession in Spain on the death of its last Austrian sovereign; 2dly, the war in defence of the pragmatic sanction in 1745; 3dly, the seven years war maintained, often single-handed, by the king of Prussia, a subject of the empire, against the whole force of Austria aided by France and half of Europe; all which events contributing to diminish the lustre of the fortune of Austria, essentially shook its power, and prepared the way for the dissolution of the government. Perhaps the transfer of the Austrian sceptre to the duke of Lorraine and the accession of a new family (the connexion of which with the old Austrian house, traced through a long line of 25 descents and 800 years to one Hugh, their common ancestor, can only amuse the genealogist) may be also considered as having had its influence among the multitude of other causes, and that not a slight one, when we consider the veneration attached to long hereditary descent, and the high importance of popular opinion.

In tracing the progress of government and manners through the different states of Europe, it became the province of Mr. B. to tread occasionally on the tender ground of papal claims and usurpations, of Luther's reformation, of religious wars and controversies, and finally, of the means and probabilities of accomplishing a lasting union among all denominations of christians.

Sincerely as we condemn the interested clamour of a party which has contributed, in our opinion, essentially to hinder and procrastinate the most desirable event of catholic emancipation, we are inclined, upon the whole, to hope with our author that the expected completion will not be long delayed. The spirit of the times on both sides is far different from that which distinguished the days of Elizabeth and the Stuarts. Those horrible phantoms, the Pope and the Pretender, are no longer bug-bears even to children. The one is feebly represented by a poor old foolish cardinal at Rome, and, after him, by a yet more abject emblem of royalty, the very football of fortune, whom we still call king of Sardinia. The other is one of the poorest of Buonaparte's priests, a tool barely employed by him in the mock-ceremony of a coronation, and now no longer useful even in the hand of its

master. The very cry, once the watch-word of civil and religious liberty, has, in the revolution of the wheel, changed sides and turned directly against its original employers. But it is no longer supported by a great and popular feeling, and has been but feebly and indistinctly heard even in the fair theatre of a general election.

The particular events which marked the origin and internal progress of the French revolution are in general ably pointed out and illustrated (as far as the small compass of the work admits) in the two first sections of the 8th part, (from p. 180 to 200), to which we refer the reader; but Mr. Butler appears to have been too blindly led by the abbé Barruel and the host of his followers in the discovery of jacobin conspiracies and revolutionary leagues of Illuminati, when he considers the philosophists and novellists of France as *causes* of what they were, in fact, only *collateral* effects. The times were arrived at their full maturity. The form of government which had successively passed through all the degrees of despotism for eight centuries, contained in its very fabric the seeds of its dissolution. The hot-bed of a weak and depraved sovereign, a corrupt court, and dissolute nobility, accelerated their hitherto slow, but regular, growth. The disorders of the finances, and the turbulence of the people, inflamed by want and oppression, and partially redeemed (by means of the more general diffusion of knowledge,) from the stupid acquiescence of darkness and ignorance, completed all that was required to effect the revolution. The writings of the French philosophers are no more than pictures of the minds of men, running to all the extremes of excessive liberty, from the confinement of absolute oppression, dissolute after the examples of the sovereign, the nobility, and the clergy, irreligious from the same causes, added to the total and culpable neglect of popular instruction and an active and regular domestic economy. Thus philosophers and jacobins, in contributing to the work of each other, were only impelled by the general spirit of the times, which would have done the work without them; and as for plots and conspiracies, who shall pretend to assign them as the origin of what the course of nature itself necessarily produced and perfected?

None of the proofs of this imagined confederacy are at all decisive in our estimation. They establish no more than this, that acute and intelligent men, long before the revolution commenced, were able to foresee the necessary result of all the strange concurrent circumstances by which they found themselves surrounded.

The conduct which the ministers of this country adopted

with respect to the French revolution, was indecisive, impolitic, and unjust. Instead of being adapted to the extraordinary circumstances of the case, it exhibited all the selfish and narrow-minded policy of former times. The object was on the one hand to restore the ancient despotism, and on the other to profit by the dissensions of the country, which the unprincipled cabinets of Europe affected to relieve. The object of the war, in the pompous and indefinite phraseology of Mr. Pitt, was 'indemnity for the past, and security for the future.' No precise meaning was ever annexed to these terms, by those interested placemen by whom they were most employed. But after the peace of Amiens, the happy genius of Mr. Sheridan, we think, discovered the secret, and informed the puzzled nation that 'Indemnity for the past,' signified the Isle of 'Trinidad, and 'Security for the future,' that of Ceylon.

But it is now time to take our leave of Mr. Butler, whom it is our duty to thank for a clear exposition of many important historical facts, as well as for many ingenious discussions on intricate points of antiquity. We admire the multitude of the books he has quoted, and recommend, both to the genealogist and historian, the tables of descents with which his work abounds, which he seems to have deduced from the best sources, and investigated with great labour and accuracy. But the world was well acquainted before with his skill in ascertaining titles. Uniformly with this work are published new editions of the author's '*Horæ Biblicæ*,' and '*Horæ Juridicæ Subsecivæ*,' to the latter of which is now annexed 'a Sketch of the professional Character of the Earl of Mansfield,' which has before been published in Seward's '*Anecdotes of distinguished Persons*.'

ART. V.—*The Stranger in America; containing Observations made during a long Residence in that Country on the Genius, Manners and Customs of the People of the United States; with biographical Particulars on Public Characters, Hints and Facts relative to the Arts, Sciences, Commerce, Agriculture, Manufactures, Emigration, and the Slave-Trade. By Charles William Janson, Esq. late of the State of Rhode Island, Counsellor at Law. Illustrated by Engravings. 4to. pp. 489. London. Cundee. 1807.*

THOUGH Mr. Janson resided for many years in America, he details his observations as if he had performed a rapid tour through that country, and gives to his work the geographical arrangement of north and south. He first

perspires and grumbles in the states of New England, and afterwards leads his reader to the southward to listen to his execration of the manners and customs of Georgia and the Carolinas. The curiosity of the Anglo-Americans, is exposed and described very nearly in the terms of Dr. Franklin. The excessive heat of the summer, the piercing cold of winter, bed-bugs, mosquitoes, processions and orations pass before us in review like the pictures in the shewman's box, nor are we able to observe much sagacity of discrimination in the observations on these subjects. The third chapter contains an account of the extent and population of the union: the former is in effect if not in reality unbounded but by the ocean, and the latter is estimated at upwards of six millions, and to be in a state of rapid increase. The country notwithstanding is very thinly peopled when compared even with the most barren of the European kingdoms. When we consider the great distance of the American states from each other, their different climates and their most discordant interests, with the spirit of restlessness and rebellion which reigns universally through the confederated governments, it is impossible not to agree with our author and many others who predict a speedy divulsion of the American republic. It would be an event we conceive not less beneficial to that country itself than to the European governments, with which it has entertained an insolent and precarious connection. It would give origin to a balance of power in America, from which must arise in its turn some regard to principles of national honour and justice: while it would enable the respective states to pursue without controul those plans of aggrandisement or security best suited to the peculiarities of their situation. Whatever may be the event we are persuaded that even in our own times an opportunity of judging of the truth of these conjectures will be afforded to the world, and America, as Europe, will be occupied by a multitude of independent states, jealous of each other and equitable through fear and interest.

The manners of the Anglo-Americans appear to have been little suited to the taste of our author, who in vain expected that deference and civility to which he had been accustomed in his intercourse with his inferiors in wealth in the ancient world. We have long known that in New England it is hardly possible to procure a servant, so high is the spirit of independence, and so great the facility of procuring subsistence without descending to the degrading situation of a menial.

'The arrogance of domestics, observes our author, 'in this land of republican liberty and equality,' is particularly calculated to excite

the astonishment of strangers. To call persons of this description servants, or to speak of their *master* or *mistress*, is a grievous affront. Having called one day at the house of a gentleman of my acquaintance, on knocking at the door, it was opened by a servant maid, whom I had never seen before, as she had not been long in his family. The following is the dialogue, word for word, which took place on the occasion: 'Is your master at home?'—'I have no master.'—'Don't you live here.'—'I stay here.'—'And who are you then?'—'Why I am Mr.—'s help. I'd have you to know, *man*, that I am no *sarvant*; none but *negers* are *sarvants*.'

It cannot be denied that these replies were not likely to prove agreeable to an English ear. English servants are kept at a greater distance and more respect is demanded from them than from those of most other nations, precisely because they are more nearly on a footing with the master, who dares not to treat them ill beyond a certain and very limited point. A considerable degree of reserve and hauteur is necessary to prevent the barrier from being wholly over-leapt: whereas in countries where the master knows that he may kick or maltreat his domestic to the fullness of his fancy, he is apt to disregard minor insolencies which can lead to no more serious consequences, and which he can instantly repress when they become too great. Much familiarity between master and servant is a sure sign that the former considers his authority over the latter to be completely established. These views we conceive to be generally correct wherever there is a fair competition in the market for servants, wherever the master is sure of being able to suit himself with a moderate facility. In the United States, from the plenty of land servants are a scarce commodity: there is a monopoly of them, and the purchaser is unable to insist on the requisite goodness of the article.

Mr. Jansen gives nearly the same account of the religion of the North Americans as former travellers have done. There are numerous sects, none of which are assisted by the secular arm. In the northern parts more austere doctrines prevail: in the southern there is a considerable tendency to throw off the yoke of religion altogether.

The next chapters contain a long and uninteresting account of public characters of America, and of some parts of the history of the revolutionary war, which might have been altogether as well omitted. The city of Washington, according to our author, makes very little progress, and its situation is not so admirably adapted to unite the advantages of a seat of government, and of a commercial emporium,

as was at one time imagined. In fact, it was founded upon a theory which has every appearance of being false, that the American states would continue under a federal government. The shares of property in this city have turned out a very indifferent concern, and we should suppose are likely to turn out yet worse than they have done. Nothing, in all probability, can postpone the disunion of the component parts of the trans-atlantic republic to any very remote period.

A long account is given of the American theatres, and many minute details of the performers who have left England for the western continent. The greater part of these have succeeded very indifferently, and many of them have fallen early victims to the unhealthiness of the climate, especially in the southern states. We should imagine the circumstances here stated, if correct, will afford very little encouragement to emigrating actors. But Mr. Jansen grumbles throughout his quarto, and loses no opportunity of saying ill both of the citizens, the government, and the country of America. We must therefore take his statements with due allowance for his notorious and unceasing partiality.

Some strange facts are stated regarding the American bankrupt law, which we believe to be less exaggerated than many other of the complaints of our author. The law which permits a debtor to put his property beyond the reach of his just creditor, by investing it in land, is alone enough to give room to the most odious abuses. We could be indignant upon such a subject, and inveigh against the profligacy of so atrocious a regulation; but when we recollect how nearly some part of our own law corresponds to the object of our condemnation, we must rest in conscious silence that it does not belong to an inhabitant of England to take up the gauntlet on this subject. Certificates of bankruptcy, if we believe Mr. Jansen, are procured in America with a scandalous facility, and a rapidity which must be altogether destructive of good faith and honest dealing.

Our author gives very discouraging accounts of the land in America. But his statements are obviously tinged either with disappointment or spleen. Nobody will believe that all or even a considerable part of the soil in that country is ill-fitted to reward the toil of the labourer. It certainly will not reward his indolence, and we know of no country in the world where a poor man can at once be lazy and comfortable. It is undoubted that many emigrants have been swindled into purchases which have not answered their expectations. But it is not less certain that, in the majority of cases, it has been owing to their own inattention. We have in this part of the

work an account of the practice of cooking land, as our author calls it. This is done by land jobbers, and consists in fixing on some barren tract worth nothing for any purpose, and in planting a few small trees at particular spots, so that in conveying the ground to the unwary, they may legally describe portions of it as running from such a mulberry tree to such a sycamore, and so on. The state of Georgia is strongly accused by our author of unfair practices in the sale of their waste lands; but, as Mr. Janson was a party concerned, and conceived himself greatly injured, we cannot trust implicitly to the accuracy of his statements.

Most of our readers have probably heard of the order of the Cincinnati in America, which is a private association of such officers as served in the war of the revolution. They wear an eagle as a badge, and the honour, such as it is, is transmitted to the eldest male heirs of the original associators. This institution excited considerable jealousy among the democracy of America, and a very amusing satire of it appeared and is inserted in this work, which, if it were not too long, we would transcribe. It is indeed the best specimen of American composition which is presented to us by Mr. Janson. We are here favoured with many observations on the Cincinnati, which we have no doubt appeared very acute and sagacious to their author. He is displeased with their motto, and proposes a new one. He disapproves of their badge, but good-naturedly observes that it is pleasing to indulge a whim, though for no very obvious reason. But, above all, he is scandalised at the small number of officers who are members of this society, and thinks the claims of the militia and of those who served only for a short period too strong to be forgotten. He would give some of them gold medals, some silver, some *brass, copper, pewter, 'or even a bit of tin, or pot metal.'* He would permit the most worthy to wear it at the breast, and the less excellent at the *breeches pocket*, a most extraordinary place for a medal. The reason assigned for all this elegance of arrangement is, that we might see the proportion of the honour as well 'by the point of suspension as by the bob itself.'

Mr. Janson gives a very deplorable view of the state of education in America: boys, he asserts, are indulged in all manner of excesses; and that he has often seen those of wealthy parents intoxicated, shouting and swearing in the public streets. Smoking of segars is carried by mere children to so great a length as sometimes to occasion death, as appears from the following advertisement:

'Died in Salem Master James Verry, aged twelve, a promising

youth, whose early death is supposed to have been brought on by excessive smoking of segars.'

In the southern states there is one set of people called *slingers* and another called *eleveners*. The first of these are so named from taking a quantity of spirits mixed with sugar and mint, and called a *sling*, every morning before breakfast; the *eleveners* we suppose begin at eleven o'clock only to their execrable potion. But Mr Janson leaves us a little in the dark as to this fact, having thought fit to veil his meaning in an oracular obscurity of *language*; 'a second rate consumer,' says he, 'of distillations from the sugar cane, the grape, and the mulberry, is the *eleveners*.' We do not pretend to unravel the sense of this profound passage, and leave it to the sagacity of the reader.

The horrid and disgusting practice of gouging is proved by our author still to exist. The facts which he gives are contained in the following extract:

'Passing in company with other travellers through the state of Georgia, our attention was arrested by a gouging match. We found the combatants fast clenched by the hair, and their thumbs endeavouring to force a passage into each other's eyes; while several of the bystanders were betting upon the first eye to be turned out of its socket. For some time the combatants avoided the *thumb stroke* with dexterity. At length they fell to the ground, and in an instant the uppermost sprung up with his antagonist's eye in his hand!! The savage crowd applauded, while, sick with horror, we galloped away from the infernal scene. The name of the sufferer was John Butler, a Carolinian, and the first eye was for the honor of the state to which they respectively belonged.

'A brute in human form, named John Stanley of Bertie county, North Carolina, sharpens his teeth with a file, and boasts of his dependence on them in fight. This monster will also exult in relating the account of the noses and ears he has bitten off, and the cheeks he has torn.

'A man of the name of Thomas Penrise, then living in Edenton in the same state, attempting at cards to cheat some half drunken sailors, was detected. A scuffle ensued; Penrise knocked out the candle, then gouged out three eyes, bit off an ear, tore a few cheeks, and made good his retreat.'

Another favourite diversion in the southern parts of the United States is butting, a mode of combat in which the parties imitating bulls rush against each other with opposed foreheads. This practice our author strenuously asserts is not confined to negroes alone, but prevails equally among the white men. Such exhibitions certainly give rise to no very

favourable ideas of the state of morals and civilization in the American republic.

In the Carolinas Mr. Jansen gives an account of the pleasures of bee-hunting ; and his delicacy is greatly shocked by the attendance of naked negro wenches, on which occasion he expressed his displeasure to his landlord, who replied with a tremendous oath ' that he could not make the b—s wear clothes ; and that he had two months ago given out their summer suits, which they tore to pieces in a few days to avoid the trouble of wearing them.' We have here some particulars respecting a kind of small ant which infests the houses. They are said to have an acid taste, and as they are frequently found among victuals in great quantities, many people eat them rather than be at the trouble of brushing them away.

From these wondrous achievements we pass to another part of the work, bordering somewhat upon the extraordinary, but which we do not pretend utterly to discredit. So lately as in 1804, gold mines are said to have been discovered in the Northern Carolina, which promise great benefit to the proprietors. The first portions of this precious metal were found on the property of a native of Hesse Cassel, Mr. John Mead, (which we may be allowed to observe is a most singular German name). The children of this person gathered it in a creek running through his land in the daily quantity of an hundred pennyweights, and Mr. Mead himself found a lump of ore weighing no less than twenty-eight pounds, and worth fourteen hundred pounds sterling. On the faith of finding greater treasures near the same place a company was formed for exploring the country, and 35,000 acres were purchased in the vicinity. Considerable quantities of gold were found chiefly in the beds of rivulets. It is probable that the hills from which these rivulets descend contain veins of this precious metal. The sand of the streams has been found to yield by amalgamation with quicksilver great quantities of gold. A mine belonging to a Mrs. Parker is related to have been discovered in a very singular manner. This lady, whose demesnes lay in the vicinity of the gold country, had some company who were drinking tea with her, to whom she said jocularly, ' I wish, gentlemen, any of you could find a gold mine in my land.' One of the party instantly replied, ' I will go, madam, and search for you.' He went, and speedily returned with a fine specimen, and since that time a great deal more has been procurad.

All this sounds very fine, and men are apt to be dazzled with the sight of gold thus at their very feet, and requiring only to be lifted. It appears clearly however that these portions

brought down by the mountain streams will probably be speedily exhausted, as they have been slowly accumulated; after which the labour of gathering may extinguish the profit of the Carolina gold lands, and that without any great loss to the country. Of all productions of the earth, the precious metals have been found by experience to contribute the least to increase national wealth or national strength. Gold is by no means of rare occurrence. It was computed by Bergmann that it is more generally diffused than any metal, iron only excepted. Even at this day we have been credibly informed that near Leadhills in Scotland gold is to be found among the sands of the brooks, though in small quantities, and that a labourer by gathering it may gain about ninepence a day. But as he can get more by working at other employments, recourse is seldom had to that of gold seeking. And somewhat similar, it is not impossible, may be the fate of the mines of Carolina.

Upon the whole, this work is not without its merits. It is very large, very pretty, and has prints in it, and so far must suit the public taste of the day. It shows very little skill in composition, and none at all in arrangement. It is infected from one end to the other with a querulous discontent, which distorts every object and tinges the performance throughout. The author appears to have no great talent for profound remark, and the chief merit of his book consists in presenting to us another view of the manners of the Anglo-Americans and the appearances of their country. If this be faithfully done, it would be unreasonable to deny some share of praise to the author; though we must be permitted to repeat the expression of the writer of the observations on Mr. Carr's *Stranger in Ireland*, an author who appears to have a decided hatred to quarto volumes of travels, with the title of '*Stranger*,' Who is this Charles William Jansen, Esq.?

ART. VI.—*Hours of Idleness, a Series of Poems, original and translated. By George Gordon, Lord Byron, a Minor. 12mo. 6s. Longman, &c.*

'THE opinion of Dr. Johnson on the poems of a noble relation of mine, "That, when a man of rank appeared in the character of an author, his merit should be handsomely acknowledged," can have little weight with verbal, and still less with periodical censors; but, were it otherwise, I should be loth to avail myself of the privilege, and would rather incur the bitterest censure of anonymous criticism, than triumph in honours granted solely to a title.' Pref. p. ix.

Miserum est aliorum incumbere Famæ.

The favour which this author disclaims we willingly withhold; still more readily do we deny him that which youth is apt to expect. From a spirit of just pride, he asks for his book no allowances; from our opinion of its real merit, we offer it none.

The preface announces a collection of trifles, the motley production of idle, gay, and melancholy hours. To waste pages of unmeaning criticism on so unambitious a work, would but expose our want of judgment, and provoke the contempt of its author. The few specimens which we shall give, require no praise of ours. Their own worth is sufficient to support them; and no reader will be inclined to doubt our assertion that the rest of the book contains as ample evidence of a correct taste, a warm imagination, and a feeling heart, as exists in the little extracts before him.

On leaving Newstead Abbey.

'Thro' thy battlements, Newstead, the hollow winds whistle;
Thou, the hall of my fathers, art gone to decay;
In thy once smiling garden, the hemlock and thistle
Have choaked up the rose which late bloom'd in the way.

Of the mail-cover'd Barons, who proudly to battle,
Led their vassals from Europe to Palestine's plain,
The escutcheon and shield, which with ev'ry blest rattle,
Are the only sad vestiges now that remain.

No more doth old Robert, with harp-stringing numbers,
Raise a flame in the breast for the war-laurel'd wreath;
Near Askalon's towers, John of Horiston slumbers;
Unnerv'd is the hand of the minstrel by death.

Paul and Hubert too sleep, in the valley of Cressy,
For the safety of Edward and England they fell.
My fathers! the tears of your country redress you;
How you fought, how you died, still her annals can tell.

On Marston, with Rupert, 'gainst traitors contending,
Four brothers enrich'd, with their blood, the bleak field;
For the rights of a monarch, their country defending,
Till death their attachment to royalty seal'd.

Shades of heroes, farewell! your descendant, departing
From the seat of his ancestors, bids you adieu!
Abroad, or at home, your remembrance imparting
New courage, he'll think upon glory, and you.

' Though a tear dim his eye, at this sad separation,
'Tis nature, not fear, that excites his regret ;
Far distant he goes, with the same emulation,
The fame of his fathers he ne'er can forget.

' That fame, and that memory, still will he cherish,
He vows that he ne'er will disgrace your renown ;
Like you will he live, or like you will he perish ;
When decay'd, may he mingle his dust with your own.'

The history of this venerable ruin, connected with that of many of its old possessors, the author's ancestors, deserves, and obtains, the honour of another poem of greater length and of more correctness (being probably composed at a later period) than the preceding. The conclusion affected us in a very peculiar manner ; and while we warmly entered into the generous and noble sentiments which inspired the writer, we could not but hail, with something of prophetic rapture, the hope conveyed in the closing stanza.

' Newstead ! what saddening change of scene is thine !
Thy yawning arch betokens slow decay ;
The last and youngest of a noble line
Now holds thy mouldering turrets in his sway.

' Deserted now, he scans thy grey-worn towers ;
Thy vaults, where dead of feudal ages sleep ;
Thy cloisters, pervious to the wintry showers ;
These, these, he views, and views them but to weep.

' Yet are his tears, no emblems of regret——
Cherish'd affection only bids them flow ;
Pride, Hope, and Love, forbid him to forget,
But warm his bosom with empassion'd glow.

' Yet he prefers thee to the gilded domes,
Or gewgaw grottos, of the vainly great :
Yet lingers 'mid thy damp and mossy tombs,
Nor breathes a murmur 'gainst the will of fate.

' Haply thy Sun, emerging, yet, may shine,
Thee to irradiate, with meridian ray :
Fortune may smile upon a future line,
And Heaven restore an ever cloudless day.'

No man was ever a poet at nineteen, without being a lover also ; and Lord Byron's heart, if we may judge of it from his verses, is steeled against none of the warm and tender impressions of nature. Of the amatory poems in this collection, many are extremely pleasing, all are easy

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and unaffected, and (what to so young a man is a rare and exalted praise) free from the slightest taint of immodesty.

His 'Tale of Terror' is far superior to the generality of those productions which it most resembles; we will not compare it with the best of Walter Scott's ballads; but can truly say that it discovers the existence of powers equal to maintain such a comparison.

The grave and laborious follies of collegers and schoolmen, which occupy the largest theatre on which our author has hitherto been able to witness the farce of life, call forth his talent for satire. Prudence has not yet taught him to be very sparing in the exercise of his weapon, nor experience, to be always judicious in the choice of subjects; but a few years or months will let loose to his pursuit the 'higher game' of the world; and he has enough within him to constitute a keen and successful sportsman.

But, however high a rank he might attain in the departments of love, romance, and satire, it is in tenderness and pathos that his real excellence, as a poet, will consist. None of his compositions have afforded us so high a gratification, because none reflects so clear and beautiful an image of the composer's mind, as that entitled 'Childish Recollections,' in which he looks back (in an hour of sickness and depression) on the school which he had lately quitted, on the scenes, the pleasures, the cares, the passions, the companions, of his boyish days, to which he had lately bade adieu. He views them, it is true, with some of the prejudices remaining to which his past situation gave birth; for his is not a mind from which impressions either of attachment or dislike, of gratitude or resentment can be soon effaced. We could wish that, in his writings, at least, the former only had been suffered to appear, without their contrasts; but his spirit is as ardent as it is lofty, and he is not yet sufficiently experienced to appreciate, and distinguish, the errors which arise from want of judgment and from want of principle.

We return to our more pleasing task; and shall select such passages, as can give pleasure only, from this delightful poem.

' Oft does my heart indulge the rising thought,
Which still recurs, unlook'd-for, and unsought;
My soul to fancy's fond suggestion yields,
And roams romantic o'er her airy fields;
Scenes of my youth, develop'd, crowd to view,
To which I long have bade a last adieu!
Seats of delight, inspiring youthful themes;
Friends lost to me for aye, except in dreams;

Some who in marble prematurely sleep,
Whose forms I now remember, but to weep ;
Some, who yet urge the same scholastic course
Of early science, future fame the source ;
Who, still contending in the studious race,
In quick rotation, fill the senior place !
'These, with a thousand visions, now unite
To dazzle, tho' they please, my aching sight.

' *Ida* ! blest spot, where science holds her reign,
How joyous, once, I join'd the youthful train ;
Bright, in idea, gleams thy lofty spire,
Again I mingle with thy playful quire ;
Our tricks of mischief, every childish game,
Unchang'd by time or distance, seems the same ;
Through winding paths, along the glade, I trace
The social smile of every welcome face,
My wonted haunts, my scenes of joy or woe,
Each early boyish friend or youthful foe ;
Her feuds dissolv'd, but not my friendship past,
I bless the former, and forgive the last.
Hours of my youth, when nurtur'd in my breast,
To love a stranger, friendship made me blest ;
Friendship, the dear peculiar bond of youth,
When every artless bosom throbs with truth,
Untaught by worldly wisdom how to feign,
And check each impulse with prudential rein ;
When, all we feel, our honest souls disclose,
In love to friends, in open hate to foes :
No varnish'd tales the lips of youth repeat,
No dear-bought knowledge purchas'd by deceit ;
Hypocrisy, the gift of lengthen'd years,
Matur'd by age, the garb of prudence wears ;
When now the boy is ripen'd into man,
His careful sire chalks out some wary plan ;
Instructs his son from candour's path to shrink,
Smoothly to speak, and cautiously to think ;
Still to assent, and never to deny,
A patron's praise can well reward the lie ;
And who, when Fortune's warning voice is heard,
Would lose his opening prospects for a word ?
Although, against that word, his soul rebel,
And truth, indignant, all his bosom swell.'

After a very grateful tribute to the memory of

'The dear preceptor of his earlier days,'
who relinquished his situation at '*Ida*' some time previous to his own departure, he returns to his friends, and thus apostrophises them :

' Dear honest race, though now we meet no more,
 One last, long look on what we were before ;
 Our first kind greetings, and our last adieu,
 Drew tears from eyes unused to weep with you ;
 Through splendid circles, fashion's gaudy world,
 Where Folly's glaring standard was unfurl'd,
 I plung'd to drown in noise my fond regret,
 And all I sought or hoped, was to forget ;
 Vain wish ! if, chance, some well-remember'd face,
 Some old companion of my early race,
 Advanc'd to claim his friend with honest joy,
 My eyes, my heart, proclaim'd me still a boy ;
 The glittering scene, the fluttering groupes around,
 Were quite forgotten when my friend was found ;
 The smiles of beauty (for alas ! I've known
 What 'tis to bend before love's mighty throne ;)
 The smiles of beauty, though those smiles were dear,
 Could hardly charm me when my friend was near ;
 My thoughts bewilder'd in the fond surprise,
 The woods of Ida danced before my eyes ;
 I saw the sprightly wanderers pour along,
 I saw, and join'd again the joyous throng ;
 Panting again, I trac'd her lofty grove,
 And friendship's feelings triumph'd over love.

' Yet, why should I alone with such delight
 Retrace the circuit of my former flight ?
 Is there no cause, beyond the common claim
 Endear'd to all in Childhood's very name ?
 Ah ! sure some stronger impulse vibrates here,
 Which whispers, Friendship will be doubly dear
 To one, who thus for kindred hearts must roam,
 And seek abroad the love denied at home,
 Those hearts, dear Ida, have I found in thee,
 A home, a world, a paradise, to me.
 Stern death forbade my orphan youth to share
 The tender guidance of a father's care ;
 Can rank, or ev'n a guardian's name, supply
 The love which glistens in a father's eye ?
 For this, can wealth, or title's sound atone,
 Made, by a parent's early loss, my own ?
 What brother springs, a brother's love to seek ?
 What sister's gentle kiss has press'd my cheek ?
 For me, how dull the vacant moments rise,
 To no fond bosom link'd by kindred ties :
 Oft, in the progress of some fleeting dream,
 Fraternal smiles, collected round me seem,
 While still the visions to my heart are press'd,
 The voice of love will murmur in my rest ;
 I hear, I wake, and in the sound rejoice,
 I hear again,—but ah ! no brother's voice.

A hermit, midst of crowds, I fain must stray,
Alone, though thousand pilgrims fill the way ;
While these a thousand kindred wreaths entwine,
I cannot call one single blossom mine :
What then remains ? in solitude to groan,
To mix in friendship, or to sigh alone ?
Thus must I cling to some endearing hand,
And none more dear than Ida's social band.

We cannot now follow the poet, as we would gladly do, through the characteristic, but tender, descriptions of three or four of his most intimate associates, nor to the conclusion of this affecting poem, which does not fall short of the passages which we have already quoted. Valuable, as this little collection is, from its intrinsic merit, it is rendered much more so by the mind which produced and pervades it. We must now advert to that nobility of birth which we disdain to use as an apology for faults or a heightener of beauties, for the purpose of urging the writer (whose superior genius and high sense of honour are equally apparent in his works) to follow that course of virtuous ambition for which nature and inclination may best fit him, with energy and perseverance, and thus to run a career worthy of his character and talents, and of the genuine pride of an illustrious ancestry.

Let him also remember that a life of vigorous action or of severe study is not incompatible with occasional pursuits of the same nature as those he has already indulged in ; and, wherever his future lot may be cast, we shall continue to entertain a hope (notwithstanding the act of abjuration in his preface) of hailing, on some future occasion, his honourable progress in the ranks of poetry.

ART. VII.—*View of the present State of Poland, by George Burnett, late of Balliol College, Oxford. 12mo. 6s. Longman. 1807.*

THOUGH Poland has been blotted out of the map of Europe by the infamous spoliations of Russia, Austria, and Prussia, yet we have just seen at least a part of her provinces emerge from their depression and acquire once more a separate and independent government. We had hoped, that Buonaparte, either in his justice, his mercy, or his wrath, would have restored Poland to the dimensions which it possessed before its first dismemberment ; and that the country would have again ranked among the greater European powers. Perhaps the conqueror may have made his

forbearance on this occasion, the price of conciliating Russia, and of neutralizing the hostile propensities of Austria. Prussia, which was certainly most deeply implicated in the guilt of the partition, appears at present to have paid the whole forfeit of the crime. We are always happy to behold such a striking proof of that moral government which presides over the destiny of nations, as is at present evinced in the condition of those states, who planned and executed the triple partition of Poland. Prussia exhibits in the most awful manner the retributive justice of God; and her fate may inform other nations that they cannot, with permanent impunity, violate the great rules of moral obligation. Russia has begun to feel the effects of that unjust partition; and Austria will probably ere long experience a still greater degree of humiliation, which she has amply merited by that unprincipled and criminal transaction. The three crowned robbers in the capitals of Berlin, of Vienna, and of Petersburgh, who conspired to plunder the then-defenceless Pole, little thought that their atrocious rapacity was only laying up a store of misfortune and of vengeance for their successors. The great Frederick, as he was called, would have been indeed great if he had been just; and not despised the providential government of God.

These reflections naturally arose in our minds as we took up the present volume; the fate of Poland, like that of an oppressed and persecuted individual, has excited our sympathies and interested our hearts. We were anxious to learn the present state of the country, with the temper, sentiments, civilization, moral and intellectual habits of the people. Nor have we found the work of Mr. Burnett barren of amusement or information; it is indeed a very agreeable performance; and as it relates to a part of the world, of which little is known, the communication will be thankfully received.

Mr. B. informs us that he was absent from England about fifteen months, during ten of which he was settled in Poland; and was for some time an inmate in the family of Count Zamousky; who, during Mr. Burnett's stay, was not often absent from his estate. Mr. B. therefore candidly confesses that he did not enjoy any very extensive or varied opportunities of observation; and that those which he did possess he did not always turn to the best account. But still Mr. B.'s work brings us acquainted with many interesting particulars relative to the interior of Poland. The author begins his first chapter with an account of Dantzic and its environs. Mr. Burnett happened to be at Dantzic during the fair, which is kept in July and August, when the town

becomes a place of great resort from all parts of Germany. The fair-people sleep in their booths, on their counters, or wherever they can be best situated for the protection of their property; and the weather is usually so warm at this season that men, women, and children are beheld at night as you pass along the streets, enjoying their repose in the open air. Religion is not much in fashion at Dantzic; the churches are but little frequented, and infidelity is said to be very prevalent. Places of public amusement are not so thinly attended; and the theatre is open on Sundays, agreeably to the custom of the continent. Among the gratifications which are also permitted on the Sunday are tumbling, rope-dancing, &c. The people excel in their feats of dexterity on the rope. The common dinner hour at Dantzic is twelve; at the best hotels one; at the hotels the company dine together, as at Buxton and Matlock; but each person has his wine, &c. to himself. The merchants live well, and drink hard. Champagne seldom fails to sparkle on the table; though even here the price is high. But while the body is so well taken care of, the mind is not neglected; the town contains some good libraries, and the merchants both read and think.

The surface of Poland is in general flat, without any mountainous acclivities, and only a few gentle swells. The cultivated districts are greatly exceeded by the uncultivated parts. The country is interspersed with numerous forests, many of which extend for fifteen or twenty miles in every direction. In summer the traveller is delighted with their verdure and their shade; in winter every branch bends beneath the weight of snow. In the soil of Poland sand is said to be the predominating ingredient, but it produces every species of grain. The cattle are in general small; and fat meat is so rare that the beef at the best tables is frequently larded with bacon. Mutton is far from common; and a flock of sheep is seldom seen. A Polish cow is said to be greatly surpassed by an English in the quantity of milk which it yields. The cheese is poor and hard; pigs are seen in numerous droves feeding on the stubble; and poultry every where abounds. The horses seem stunted in their growth, but they will do much work and endure great fatigue. The roë-buck furnishes a frequent and delicious article of food. The meals of the Poles are but scantily supplied with vegetable food. Even potatoes are not often seen. Raspberries and strawberries are the most common fruits; beer, and a spirit resembling whiskey, are the usual liquors of indigenous extraction; but these are said to be very indifferent in their kind.

The climate of Poland is favourable to health; the continual variations of temperature, which distinguish our island, are unknown there; the seasons are regular and the air serene. The winters are long, and usually intensely cold; but with the natives winter is rather a season of pleasurable than of painful expectation. When every object is covered with snow, and the country appears the native abode of frost, the Poles find abundance of diversion on the sledge. On the sledge they will sometimes proceed at the rate of seventy or eighty miles a day; and they often travel by night as well as by day. All sorts of carriages are so contrived as to be placed on sledges. What the Pole most dreads is a rainy winter; or a winter attended with a constant interchange of frost and rain. When the spring returns, vegetation proceeds with great rapidity, and the forests soon exchange their white robes of snow for a mantle of the richest green.

The Polish villages are usually situated on the skirts of the forests, though they are sometimes seen on the unsheltered plain. They consist of wretched hovels constructed of wood and covered with straw and turf. When a fire happens, and the wind is favourable, the whole village is usually destroyed. The towns, of which the better sort are built with brick, are usually situated in the plains, often in the midst of a morass; in order, as is supposed, to render them more difficult of access. In winter these towns present the most dreary aspect which can be imagined. Warsaw exhibits the appearance of desertion and decay. The nobles and gentry have abandoned the capital since the country has lost its political independance; stately palaces, which are suffered to go out of repair, evince the regret of the former possessors, and high grass now flourishes in the courts. The ordinary vehicle for travelling in Poland is a carriage with four wheels, with a head like that of a one-horse chair; in the front are small folding doors with glasses, which may be shut as occasion requires. A Polish inn exhibits no bad specimen of the wretchedness of the country and of the wants of the inhabitants. The moment you enter, the nose is assailed by a multitude of odours of no very grateful kind; the floor is covered with filth; and the most squalid penury is seen within. The stable is said to be the best room in the house. When travellers take up their quarters for the night in these miserable hovels, pallets of hay or straw are laid close to each other on the floor; and both men and women occupy contiguous beds. The men are said to have delicacy enough not to pull off their *culottes*; but the author informs us that the women will undress to their shifts, and get out of bed in the morning, close by your side, without any symptoms of

modest reserve or feminine repugnance. In the interior of Poland the inns are all kept by Jews; and though we may not assent to the prejudice that '*Jews naturally stink*,' yet we are convinced that cleanliness is not the common characteristic of a Jew. Travelling in Poland is dear notwithstanding the badness of the accommodations; and the mercenary propensities of a Jewish host do not contribute to lessen the expense. The best things to be procured at the inns are poultry, eggs and milk; the butter is usually rancid and the bread sour. The culinary art is not much understood. Chickens are put on the table sprawling with their heads on in a platter, swimming with butter, or rather buttered oil.

Previous to its dismemberment, Poland is computed to have contained a population of about fifteen millions; and it is more probable that it has increased than diminished since that event. The Polish peasantry are said to be of small stature, to have little grey eyes, short noses, and hair commonly of a yellow hue. The peasant women are represented both in appearance and in manners to be perfect antidotes to love. The state of vassalage which prevails in the country, operates like a blast on the moral feelings and intellectual capacity of the people. There is no spirit of exertion or improvement among the peasantry. They are so degraded as almost to have lost the perception of their own wretchedness; and they feel none of that ardour of hope which is excited even by the possibility of bettering our condition. The Polish peasantry have no political existence; and their miserable appearance serves better than a thousand arguments to prove the necessity and to illustrate the value of the boon. Men of narrow minds and sordid views may dispute the value of civil rights to the peasantry of any country; but whatever tends to raise man in the scale of humanity, and to inspire him with an increased sense of his own dignity and importance, tends to quicken his activity, to exalt his sentiments, and to render him a very different kind of being from what he would otherwise be. But where the human being, by a long continuance of servitude, has been changed into a species of animal, which must rank in the scale of existence below a horse or a sheep, great care will be requisite to let the transition from servitude to freedom be slow and gradual, rather than rapid and immediate. For sudden changes are as perilous in the moral as in the physical constitution. The most serious disorders would ensue from the sudden abolition of vassalage among the peasantry of Poland. The late count Zamoycki, as Mr. B. informs us, abolished vassalage in six of the villages belonging to his estate; but as the change was sudden, and no previous preparations had been made to ensure the success of the scheme, it was not attended with any beneficial consequences.

'Having no distinct comprehension of what freedom meant, but merely a rude notion that they might now do what they liked, they ran into every species of excess and extravagance which their circumstances admitted. The lands were worse cultivated than before, and the small rents which were required of them, they were often unable to pay.'

Without a certain portion of moral and intellectual culture, man cannot be expected to make a right use of liberty. But still it may admit of doubt whether, *under any circumstances*, liberty with all its incidental evils, be not preferable to slavery whatever may be its associated benefits.

It cannot be expected that agriculture should flourish in Poland, where the larger part of the land is in the hands of the noblesse, to whom the majority of the people serve only as hewers of wood and drawers of water; while a class of independant yeomanry is unknown. The average crop of grain is said to amount only to six to one of the quantity sown; but this is as much as can be expected in a country where scarcely such a thing as manure is to be seen. Enclosures are little known; and the farms usually include a space of open and forest land equal in extent to several parishes in England. Where property has undergone such few divisions, and there is hardly any such thing as a middle class of society, manufactures cannot be expected to meet with adequate encouragement. The chief retail trade in Poland is in the hands of the Jews: who here are said to display to perfection all the money-getting propensities of the Israelitish race. Of the Polish ladies the complexions are said to be fair and clear; but with a more scanty portion of *native* red than the English ladies can usually boast. This seems to arise from the effect of rouge; of which the Polish ladies make such a lavish use. The young misses begin the practice almost before they are out of their teens; and the old women continue it with redoubled avidity to the extremity of age. But besides the liberal application of rouge, on which we are not willing to bestow the meed of our applause, the author mentions another defect of a more criminal species, and which calls for our most decided reprobation. Mr. B. tells us that,

'Even in married women, chastity is considered as ridiculous, and an unlimited latitude is admitted on both sides. Yet in cases where the husband and wife have a real regard for one another, they do not always view with perfect indifference symptoms of an occasional arrangement on either side. There is a sort of *selfishment* in affection very difficult to be subdued. But again, I have observed in other instances, that couples, who have been notoriously and eminently

unfaithful, not only retain a mutual affection and esteem, but seem to like each other the better for their respective wanderings; and to observe with a sort of roguish approbation any preliminary signs of a foreign negociation. There is a natural prejudice of no ordinary force among English husbands, which makes them curious to know, whether the population of their domestic territories is attributable exclusively to their own exertions, or whether it has been at all promoted by foreign succours. This is a question of less anxious interest in Poland; and a husband perhaps acts wisely in treating it with philosophic indifference. It is not uncommon to go entirely through a family, and to remark upon each younger member—that was the fruit of such an amour; that of such another—and so on; and in this manner the disconsolate husband is sometimes bereft of every laurel he had ostensibly won in the fields of Hymen, &c. &c.

From the levity with which Mr. Burnett speaks on this subject we should be almost inclined to suspect that he approves of the scandalous violations of virtue which he relates. If such be the manners of the Polish ladies, we think that they are not likely to derive any great increase of depravity from the late incursion of the French; but we were not a little surprized to find Mr. Burnett describing such a vitiated state of society without a single expression of censure or abhorrence.

In Poland as in France the ladies are wont to hold a levee in their bed-rooms. When Mr. B. was at the house of Count Zamoyksi, he informs us that the whole of the company consisting of at least twenty persons, paid a visit to the countess in her bed-room. The far-famed goddess Cloacina is said to have no *modest* worshippers amongst the Poles; every chamber is polluted by the performances of her devotees on *une chaise percée*. But we must inform the reader, who may perhaps be prevented from visiting the country by the want of some more decorous temple of necessity, that a patent water-closet has lately been imported from this island of comfortable contrivance; and, as we suppose that the Poles are not without the imitative principle, we hope that many *fac-similes* of this ingenious invention will ere long be diffused along the banks of the Vistula.

We have no bad specimen of the defective morality which is prevalent among the Poles from the following:

‘Every person,’ says Mr. B. ‘on going out of his room must be careful to lock the door and put the key in his pocket. All the lower domestics and a great number of the principal footmen are thieves. This is a matter of universal notoriety, yet it is simply remarked as a custom of the country.’

The Poles appear to be great consumers of animal-food.

'Of the great number,' says Mr. B. 'of substantial dishes which are handed round, consisting often of five or six and even more, I have observed with wonder, that scarcely any body either man or woman suffers them to pass without taking something from each, and that too, no insignificant and mincing bits, but good solid pieces, enough for the dinner of any delicate lady in England. I have frequently seen young slender girls eat as much as the most robust and healthy man could desire. Notwithstanding this, when the lighter things come round, all will take their due proportion.'

But though they eat much, they drink little ; very rarely more than two glasses of the stronger wines at dinner ; and nothing is drunk afterwards. Many persons drink none at all.

At the house of the Princess Czartoryska the author was gratified by the sight of a relique more dear to an Englishman than the bone of any canonized saint would be to a devotee of the church of Rome. It was no less than the genuine chair of the immortal Shakespeare, which the princess purchased when in England, at no inconsiderable price. Some of our English pedagogues seem to think highly of the *à posteriori* method of introducing erudition ; but we have not yet been informed whether the Poles have derived any dramatic inspiration from placing the *seat of honour* in this sacred chair. We shall now conclude this article with returning our thanks to Mr. Burnett for the amusement which we have obtained from the perusal of his book.

ART. VIII.—*Ancient Alphabets and Hieroglyphic Characters explained ; with an Account of the Egyptian Priests, their Classes, Initiation and Sacrifices ; in the Arabic Language, by Ahmad, Bin Abubekr Bin Washih ; and in English by Joseph Hammer, Secretary to the Imperial Legation at Constantinople. 11. 1s. boards. London. Nicol. 4to. 1806.*

'THE original of this translation,' says M. Hammer, 'was found at Cairo, where it had escaped the researches of the French savans, who, though successful in collecting many valuable oriental books and manuscripts, failed in their endeavours to procure a satisfactory explanation of the hieroglyphics.' This was reserved for the researches of M. Hammer and his countrymen. The author of the present volume is said to have lived a thousand years ago : and to have enriched the literature of the Arabs by precious translations from foreign languages. The present performance is highly curious and interesting, not only as it exhibits an explanation of eighty alphabets, but as it furnishes a key to the hi-

eroglyphics. Of these eighty alphabets, the editor thinks that those which were not used in common writing, were employed as ciphers among different oriental nations. In the last chapter of the work, we are presented with the Mimshim, antediluvian or primæval alphabet, which is singularly curious, as it serves to shew the transition of the hieroglyphics from being signs of words or things, into the office of simple letters; in which we may trace the modification of the old Syrian and Chaldean alphabets. The history of Hermes, or, as he is called by the Greeks, Hermes Trismegistus, the first ancient king of the Egyptians, and the supposed inventor of the hieroglyphics, is involved in an impenetrable obscurity. We usually comprehend the kings of Egypt under the general name of Pharaohs; but the oriental historians place the Hermesian dynasty before that of the Pharaohs. To Hermes Trismegistus they ascribe the tombs, catacombs, temples, palaces, pyramids, obelisks, sphinxes, and all the royal, funeral, religious and astronomical monuments, which astonish the traveller in Upper Egypt.

Bishop Warburton thinks that the hieroglyphics were derived from the picture-writing, which was the mode of writing first in use among mankind, as was seen among the Indians on the discovery of Mexico and Peru. In this writing the object was to represent ideas by their sensible resemblances; but as this mode of composition must have been very tedious, and only a few ideas could be conveyed in a large space, it was, in process of time, improved by the kings and priests of Egypt into those hieroglyphical representations of which that country, at present, furnishes so many curious remains. This hieroglyphical writing was an abridgment of the former mode of writing in picture, and was effected principally in three ways. 1st. The principal circumstance in the subject was made to stand for the whole; thus a battle was represented by two hands, one holding a shield, the other a bow; a tumult or insurrection by an armed man casting arrows; a siege by a scaling ladder. The second method of contraction, or of abbreviated representation, was by putting the instrument of the thing, whether real or metaphorical, for the thing itself. Thus an eye, eminently placed, was used to signify God's omniscience; an eye and sceptre to represent a monarch; a ship and pilot to express the governor of the universe. In the third and still more compendious method, one thing was made to signify another, where any faint resemblance was imagined, or observed. Those hieroglyphics of the first species which approach the nearest to picture writing, or where any thing is represented by one or more of its sensible resemblances or properties, must, of

course, be the easiest to decypher ; but the most abridged mode of hieroglyphic writing seems to have been the most common, from the greater facility with which it might be executed, and from the greater obscurity which it produced. Now the great object of the Egyptian kings and priests was to conceal truths with which they were acquainted from all but the initiated few, who were themselves bound to an inviolable secrecy. Every king of the Hermesian dynasty is said by the author of the present work, to have invented, according to his own genius and understanding, a particular alphabet, in order that none should know it but the sons of wisdom. Few therefore are found who understand them in our time. They took the figures of different instruments, trees, plants, quadrupeds, birds, and their parts, and of planets and fixed stars. In this manner these hieroglyphical alphabets became innumerable, like the alphabets of the Indians and Chinese. In the first section of chapter VIII. the author exhibits the alphabet of the philosopher, Hermes the great, which is said to be used on the obelisks, pyramids, monuments, temples, &c. from the time of the first Pharaohs. In some of them we observe a sensible resemblance of the thing, in others the figures appear quite fanciful and arbitrary.

Of these hieroglyphics, some seem formed on the principles of resemblance or analogy ; but the majority appear to be entirely conventional or arbitrary. It is worthy of remark, that the hieroglyphic of God, as the All-merciful, seems to have been retained in the ceremonial of Jewish adoration ; for what was called the mercy-seat in the sanctuary, was surmounted by two cherubs with extended wings. The hieroglyphic of sin is very emphatical and expressive ; error is well depicted by three crooked lines ; and truth by three straight ; the owl, which is used for the hieroglyphic of God, is the same as the Greeks made emblematic of the goddess of wisdom ; the hieroglyphic of planet, seems to indicate a knowledge of the solar system ; seven orbs are placed around one common centre ; and a space is left, as if the inventor thought that the planetary system would be enlarged by subsequent discoveries.

Besides the hieroglyphics which were made the representatives of things or words, the antient Egyptians had also proceeded to the farthest point of hieroglyphical abbreviation by the invention of characters, which stood for simple sounds or single letters. This the author calls the *Shímshím* alphabet ; specimens of which are still found on old Egyptian monuments. He says that this alphabet ' was inspired by divine revelation, and varied in four different manners

by the people who used it, viz. the Hermesians, the Nabuthians, the Sabeans and Chaldeans. These are the four most antient people, from whom all modern nations have derived their writing.' The author relates that he saw in one of the temples in Upper Egypt the representation of a coffin, with the following curious hieroglyphical embellishments; the description of which in some places reminds us of the imagery in the Apocalypse, or in the prophetic scenery of Ezekiel. There was

' A vine growing with its leaves spread over it. The Lord (God) was standing upon the coffin with a staff in his hand, out of the end of which a tree shot forth and overshadowed it. Behind the coffin was seen a pit full of blazing fire, and four angels catching serpents, scorpions, and other noxious reptiles, throwing them into it. On his head a crown of glory; on his right, the sun, and on his left, the moon, and in his hand a ring with the twelve signs of the zodiac. Before the coffin an olive-tree sprouted forth; under the branches of which different kinds of animals were collected. On the left and a little further back, a high mountain was seen with seven golden towers supporting the sky. A hand stretched forth from this sky, poured out light, and pointed with his fingers to the olive-tree. There was also the figure of a man, whose head was in the sky and whose feet were on the earth. His hands and feet were bound. Before the lord stood seven censers, two pots, a vase filled with perfumes, spices and a bottle with a long neck containing storax. The hieroglyphic representing day, was under his right foot; and the hieroglyphic representing night, under his left. Before the Lord was laid on a high desk the book of universal nature, whereon a representation and names of the planets, the constellations, the stations, and every thing that is found in the highest heaven was painted. There was also an urn filled with earth; and half with sand; (the hieroglyphics of earth and sand being represented therein). A suspended everburning lamp, dates, olives and in a vase of emerald. A table of black basalt with seven lines, the four elements, the figure of a man carrying away a dead body, and a dog upon a lion.'

We must leave it to the ingenuity of Mr. Faber, which has been so powerfully evinced in the explanation of the seven seals, seven trumpets, seven angels and seven vials in the Apocalypse, to discover what is meant by the seven golden towers, seven censers and seven lines in the above hieroglyphical picture; and indeed we have little doubt but that his potent fancy will be able to illustrate the imagery of the whole piece by the political occurrences of modern times. The dog riding on the back of the lion must no doubt be a sly Egyptian inuendo against his present imperial majesty of France.

The author gives a very curious account of the manner in which the children of the priests were first separated for the service of religion and received the ceremony of consecration. As this passage serves to throw some light on the Jewish custom of making a sort of religious offering of their first-born to the Lord, and at the same time serves to explain a circumstance, which perplexed the enlightened Denon, we shall offer no apology for extracting it.

'When a child was born to them, the mother took it to the priest of the temple, where trial of the children used to be made. She laid it down on the threshold of the temple, without speaking a word. The priest then came with a golden cup, full of water, in his hands, accompanied by six other priests. He said prayers and sprinkled water over the child. If it moved and turned its face towards the threshold, the priest took it by the hand and conducted it into the interior of the temple where there was a coffin prepared on purpose. There they said prayers and performed ceremonies for an hour. Then the priest covered the face of the child with a silk handkerchief; a green one for girls and a red one for boys; put it in the coffin, shut it up, and took in his hand a stick with three heads made of silver, and set with jewels and precious stones. The father, mother, and relations of the child entered at this moment, and performed prayers and hymns in humble devotion. The priest then struck the coffin with his staff thrice, and cried out, "In the name of the Lord thy God, who created and made thee exist by his wisdom, speak but the inmost secrets of the events of thy life! Amen, amen, for ever and ever!" The whole assembly performed seven adorations, and then stood up. The child said, Health and heaven's blessing 'to thee! The priest returned his greetings and said, "What is thy name? In what consists thy sacrifice? and what means of subsistence dost thou desire? At what hour hast thou been adorned with this noble body and these gracious features (i. e. when wast thou born?) Art thou to remain here as thy brethren? or art thou only a travelling guest? I ask thee in the name of God, the all vivifying, the unchangeable, the eternal one, without end or beginning, in whose power are all things visible and invisible, the Lord of heaven and earth, the most high and supreme Being; and I conjure thee to answer, and promise, that, as long as thou shalt exist in this world, thou wilt never reveal our secrets to any stranger. The child promised it in the name of truth, which is written on the table existing from the beginning of things, in the table of fate preserved in heaven. The child was then told that he was received among the number of the wise and learned, the sons of science, &c. &c.'

After this, they opened the coffin, purified it with fumigations, and performed a sacrifice consisting of a quadruped or a bird. They burnt the blood shed, purified the body, and wrapt it up in a piece of fine white linen, an hundred and twenty fold for a male, and sixty for a female. They put it into a pot of

earth, and deposited it in the pit of sacrifices. All this was performed according to secret rites, known to nobody but themselves!! M. Denon relates that, when he was at Saccara, more than five hundred mummies of the ibis were found in a sepulchral cave, which had been embalmed and buried in earthen pots. The account of the Arabian writers elucidates this discovery much more satisfactorily than the conjectures of M. Denon.

ART IX.—*An Account of the Life and Writings of David Hume, Esq.* By Thomas Edward Ritchie. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Cadell. 1807.

THIS performance has very little claim to originality. The biographical sketch of his own life, drawn up by Mr. Hume himself, has furnished almost the whole of the narrative, more immediately pertaining to this celebrated character, a narrative which is in the hands of every reader, having been prefixed to the later editions of his History of England. The letters, which, in the biography of a man of learning, furnish the most valuable materials for forming a just estimate of his character, are *most of them* taken from professor Stewart's valuable life of Dr. Robertson. They are not in this collection *relegated* (as Mr. Ritchie comically phrases it) to the appendix, but incorporated in the body of the work. The obligations to this work of the professor are acknowledged. From what other sources the others have been drawn we are not informed. Some we have traced to the same excellent writer's life of Dr. Adam Smith; and we believe it would be easy, if it were worth while, to trace all the rest of this literary property to the proper owners. The compiler has undertaken his office without any peculiar feelings of respect for the talents and character of his subject. Indeed throughout the whole narrative he seems studious to undervalue his powers, and to confute his reasonings, which is done frequently with much coarseness and flippancy. With this disposition, of which they may perhaps have been previously informed, we are not surprised that the surviving relatives of Mr. Hume should have refused to sanction this publication, a refusal which may be implied from withholding from Mr. Ritchie the information they possess concerning him, for which he applied.

Of the materials which he possessed Mr. R. has appeared determined to take the greatest possible advantage; so that from the bulk of the volume we were led to expect a store of facts, sufficient to gratify the most prying curiosity. But

a nearer view of the work quickly undeceived us. Numerous pages are filled with matter connected with Mr. Hume only by the most remote and feeble link of association. Within the first thirty pages, for example, because Mr. Hume first introduced himself to the public as a metaphysical writer, by his unsuccessful 'Treatise on Human Nature,' we have a tedious digression on the rise and progress of metaphysical learning, and a dry and barren catalogue of the authors by whom it has been principally cultivated. Not contented with wearying our patience with this uninteresting and misplaced detail, several pages are occupied by a list of the commentators and scholiasts of the philosophical works of Aristotle. Then we have the titles of all Mr. Hume's essays, several pages of corrections which he made in the later editions of his History, and a whole volume of the letters which passed on the occasion of the ridiculous dispute between Mr. H. and Jean Jaques Rousseau. Not contented with the 368 pages which this and much other extraneous matter occupies, Mr. Ritchie has republished in an appendix, several essays of Mr. Hume, which he himself thought fit to omit in the later editions of his works. As their author by this omission has passed his own censure upon them, or at least may be thought to have pronounced them of too little value to deserve the attention of posterity, this attempt to prolong the period of their existence bears a very doubtful aspect in point of morality. But perhaps this republication may not spring from so sordid a motive, as upon the first view we should be apt to conclude. It may be merely the effect of Mr. Ritchie's singular modesty, which has made him imagine that Mr. Hume's worst writing would be highly gratifying to the public taste, when contrasted with the best of his own. A second article of the appendix is a republication of a letter from Mr. Hume to the authors of the Critical Review respecting Mr. Wilkie's Epigoniad, an epic poem, written in the year 1759. The work which bore this obscure title, has for its subject the second siege of Thebes by the Epigoni or descendants of the heroes celebrated in the Thebaid of Statius. A tradition remained among the Greeks that Homer had taken the subject of his second siege of Thebes for the subject of a poem, which has perished. The Scottish bard undertook the arduous task of appearing to revive this work, in an epic poem of nine books, the principal heroes of which are mostly the same as the personages of the Iliad. In Mr. Hume's opinion Mr. Wilkie has executed this undertaking with so much spirit and sublimity, as almost to lead us to imagine that he had found the lost manuscript of the father of poetry, and had made a

Faithful translation of it into English. To vindicate the merits of this poem from the censure of the reviewers, to point out its beauties, and to illustrate and confirm his opinion by specimens of the work are the objects of Mr. Hume's letter. These specimens undoubtedly give us a very favourable idea of the talents and genius of the author. The language is chaste and elevated, the versification correct, the sentiments appropriate. But, whether the subject itself be unattractive and uninteresting, or that the execution be unequal, certain it is, that the poem is forgotten: and after a lapse of half a century it may now be justly asserted, that the decision of posterity has confirmed the judgment of our predecessors. A third article of the appendix is taken from the supplement to the collection of Rousseau's works, printed at Geneva in 1782. This is neither more nor less than the same narration in French of the dispute between Hume and Rousseau, with which, in the body of the work, we had been glutted almost to nausea in our vernacular tongue. By this ingenious contrivance upward of eighty more pages are added to the bulk of the volume. This is book-making with a vengeance! By such arts it would be easy to expand the history of Jack the Giant-killer into an ample folio volume.

With this view of the general complexion of this volume, and the evident object of the compiler, we judge it not proper to enter into a minute examination of its contents. The public however cannot be displeased to see all that has hitherto appeared concerning a man who is undoubtedly one of the great ornaments of English literature, brought together *into one body*. The general impression which is hereby excited of his personal, intellectual and moral qualities is highly favourable. General benevolence, great amenity of manners, a temper not to be ruffled by accidents, nor susceptible of the meaner passions of envy and jealousy, were the prominent traits of his character. The foundations of this disposition may have been laid in a phlegmatic temperament, the gift of nature; but it was cherished and confirmed by his studious habits, and his conviction of the great importance of such dispositions in the necessary intercourse between man and man. Nor can we find any well authenticated facts in his private history, in which his actions were at variance with his professions. His letters to Dr. Robertson place him in the most amiable point of view. No circumstances were so likely in ordinary minds to excite jealousy, envy, and rancour, as those in which these two eminent men were placed. Competitors for fame in the same department of science, cultivating very nearly the same historical ground, it is hardly possible to conceive a situation

more hostile to a sincere and cordial friendship. Robertson too was basking in the sunshine of popular favour, whilst the labours of Hume had been received with coldness, and their author was languishing in obscurity. But in the letters of Mr. Hume there appears so much warmth of congratulation, so much sincerity of advice, so much readiness to impart useful knowledge, as set beyond all controversy the candour and integrity of his heart, and evince that his pretensions to philosophy were not belied by his practice.

The success of the first volume of Mr. Hume's *History of Great Britain* was so little, that in the first year no more than forty-five copies were sold by the London booksellers. But the year following (1755), the public attention was much directed to the author, and from thence was naturally called to the merits of his works. The general assembly of Scotland, the supreme ecclesiastical judicature of the Scottish church, has been long divided into two great parties, one professing more liberal and moderate principles than the other. The more zealous adherents to ancient discipline were scandalized at the laxity of their opponents, and took great offence at many of them for living in habits of friendship with Kames and Hume, writers who were considered as the apostles of infidelity. They determined therefore to attack these authors, to obtain a formal condemnation of their doctrine, and to follow up the censure of their principles by an excommunication of their persons. The example had been already set in London, where a grand jury of the county of Middlesex, in the year 1751, had presented the philosophical works of Lord Bolingbroke as tending to the subversion of religion, government, and morality, and being against his majesty's peace. The low church faction of Edinburgh resolved to imitate this precious piece of intolerance of the high church faction of London. David Hume having set his name to his *Philosophical Essays*, was the first object of attack. A general resolution was first moved and passed into an act, expressive of the pious abhorrence felt by the assembly of infidel principles, which are subversive of all religion, natural and revealed, and have such pernicious influence on life and morals. The following session it was moved that the assembly should be desired to take notice of some of the infidel writings, and of their authors; but that if it should be found difficult or improper to make this notice too general, it was proposed to confine the inquiry at present to one, viz. David Hume, Esq. who had publicly avowed his writings by prefixing his name to them. The motion or overture (as it is termed in the Scotch courts) introduced into the assembly on this subject gave rise to very long and warm

discussions between the contending parties in the assembly. Mr. Ritchie has given the arguments used by the orators on each side of the question at great length, copied from the Scots Magazine of the year 1756. Not contented with this, he has added the proceedings levelled against Lord Kames, whose essays published under the signature of Sopho had offended the zealots. Several pages are filled with the answer of Kames's advocates to the charges brought against the essays; an answer which is conjectured to have been the production of his lordship's pen. It is a masterly performance, comprehending, in plain and energetic language, the most cogent arguments in favour of freedom of inquiry, and liberty of reasoning, in all matters of philosophical speculation. The event of both the persecutions was favourable to the cause of philosophical liberty, the processes being dismissed by a vote of a large majority of the presbitery. It is certainly singular, that in drawing up his own memoirs Mr. Hume should have been wholly silent on an affair, which many would have thought one of the most remarkable occurrences of their lives. In points of controversy bigotry is seldom confined to one side of the question: and the petulant heretic will often court a moderate degree of persecution with as much eagerness as the fierce champion of orthodoxy will inflict it. The conduct of Mr. Hume on this occasion shews how little he was influenced by such paltry passions, and that in the publication of his opinions his principal motive was a firm persuasion that they were founded in truth.

We think that we can understand why he chose to pass over in silence his dispute with Rousseau. He could not but feel the ridiculousness of his own situation, in his conduct towards a man, to whom he bore strong feelings of good-will, and to whom he had performed essential services, being made the subject of such an idle controversy. The dispute itself was exceedingly characteristic of the opposite humours of the men. Lord Orford, at that time well known under the name of Horace Walpole, had written, with more wit than good nature, a letter to Rousseau in the name of the king of Prussia, of which copies being taken, it soon found its way into the newspapers.

The following is a translation of this *jeu d'esprit*:

‘ MY DEAR JEAN JACQUES,

‘ You have renounced Geneva, your native land. You have been driven from Switzerland, a country of which you have made such boast in your writings. In France you are outlawed: come then to me. I admire your talents, and amuse myself with your reveries: on which, however, by the way, you bestow too much time and attention. It is high time to grow prudent and happy: you have made yourself

sufficiently talked of for singularities little becoming a truly great man : show your enemies that you have sometimes common sense : this will vex them without hurting you. My dominions offer you a peaceful retreat : I am desirous to do you good, and will do it, if you can but think it such. But if you are obstinate in refusing my assistance, you may expect that I shall say not a word about it to any one. If you persist in perplexing your brains to find out new misfortunes, chuse such as you like best : I am king, and can make you as miserable as you can wish ; and, what your enemies certainly never will, I will cease to persecute you, when you are no longer vain of persecution.

‘ Your sincere friend.

‘ FREDERICK.’

Unluckily it had happened, that Hume and Walpole had lodged at the same hotel at Paris, and from this and some other circumstances equally trifling, poor Rousseau hastily concluded that the former must have been let into the secret of this fabrication. Another step more converted him into an accomplice in the guilt, and, without the smallest proof or probability, he roundly charged the man who had been his friend and benefactor with a plot to make him ridiculous in the eyes of the public, and with having pretended friendship in order more securely to become the assassin of his reputation. It is curious to observe in his letters the change from the warmest expressions of love and admiration to the most bitter and dark suspicions ; and to see how the most innocent words and actions were rapidly made to agree with the airy phantasms of his disordered imagination.

In appretiating Mr. Hume's literary character and in criticizing his writings, Mr. Ritchie has the opportunity of bringing us acquainted with the powers of his own mind. But we are not persuaded that his knowledge of the principal subjects, on which Mr. Hume treated, is sufficiently profound, or that he is possessed of the talents, which authorise him to become his critic. The remarks which he has made are upon the whole very slight and trivial ; he frequently asserts the positions of his author to be erroneous, without proof ; and sometimes, while he contradicts him in words, he coincides with him in matter of fact. Mr. Hume, for example, has asserted, in his essay entitled *Sceptical Doubts* (a title which Mr. Ritchie justly condemns as tautological) that our conclusions from experience are not founded on reasoning or any process of the understanding. To this Mr. Ritchie answers,

‘ That such is the frame of the human mind, that if it once acquire a knowledge of an object by experience, it is drawn by an irresistible necessity to infer that the same qualities must reside in, and the same consequences follow from objects in all respects similar.’

But this referring our conclusions to an *irresistible* necessity is not at all contradictory to Mr. Hume's position, and is very nearly the same as the hypothesis which ascribes our belief in the connection of cause and effect to *custom* or habit, which Mr. Hume has proposed. When Mr. Ritchie proceeds to observe that the same is the principle which obliges a man to assent to the axioms in mathematics, he advances what no mathematician on earth would assent to. It has ever been maintained, that mathematical truths are wholly independent of experience, and would continue to be truths, though the universe, which affords the materials of experience, were to cease to exist. By hazarding such positions, Mr. R. has betrayed his utter ignorance on subjects, concerning which he pronounces *so dogmatically*.

However large are the apparent contents of this volume, we are persuaded that the public would still receive with pleasure any memorials which were truly authentic, and drawn from original sources, of the celebrated man, whose name adorns the title page of this compilation.

ART. X.—*Observations on a Journey through Spain and Italy to Naples; and thence to Smyrna and Constantinople: comprising a Description of the principal Places in that Route, and Remarks on the present natural and political State of those Countries. By Robert Semple, Author of Walks and Sketches at the Cape of Good Hope; and of Charles Ellis. 2 Vols. 8vo. 10s.6d. Baldwins. 1807.*

WITH a just confidence in his own powers, Johnson once said that he could write the 'Life of a Broomstick.' Before an author undertakes to treat a barren or a hackneyed subject, he should narrowly investigate his own talent for accurate and discriminating observation, vigour of thought, and strength or liveliness of illustration. A self-examination of that kind on the part of Mr. Semple, might have saved the writer of this article some unprofitable labour. We may be content to be entertained by the simple narrative of a traveller who has attempted to trace the sources of the Nile, or the mouth of the Niger, who has penetrated to the regions of India, which are yet imperfectly known to Europeans, or whose industry or good fortune has enabled him to elude or defeat the jealousy of the Chinese government. But when Lisbon, Cadiz, or Leghorn forms the limit of a writer's excursion, the world expects something more than a mere delineation of scenes or events, which have nothing new or uncommon to recommend them; it expects to learn something.

When the aforementioned illustrious writer was pressed by some of his friends to lay before the public an account of his short tour in France, 'the reason of my not doing it is plain,' he replied: 'intelligent readers had seen more of France than I had.' 'But,' rejoined the supple Boswell, 'suppose a face has been painted by fifty painters before, still we love to see it done by Sir Joshua.' 'True, sir, but Sir Joshua cannot paint a face when he has not time to look on it.' We are disposed to hope and believe that if Mr. Semple were to weigh well the last unanswerable argument, he would be induced to call in all the copies of his present tour that remain unsold; and as those probably constitute the whole number printed, except the one now on our table, it might save him the mortification of being added to the long list of modern travellers, who have encountered the ridicule of the public. Mr. S. travelled through Portugal, Spain, and Italy, as fast as the post horses or mules of the respective countries would carry him. Unprovided with introductions, he formed no acquaintances. Destitute, to all appearance, of taste or learning, the beauties of nature and of art, the invaluable remains of Roman, Gothic, Moorish, or modern grandeur, with which those interesting countries abound, would have been lost upon him, even if his time for contemplating them had been as abundant as it was actually insufficient. Algeziras was the only town in which he made a stay of any length, and here 'he was detained near two months by the *objects* of his journey.' The reader is nowhere informed what those objects were. But when it is considered that Algeziras is the great resort of the privateers and gun-vessels that infest the entrance of the Mediterranean for the annoyance of the English commerce, we are at no loss for the motives which led an American to fix his residence in a place which the more refined feelings of an European would use every endeavour to avoid. We learn from the writer's own account, that its population consists entirely of adventurers and desperadoes from every climate and country, who have come hither in search of fortune. 'The richest inhabitants of the place,' (he proceeds) 'were, a few years ago, men of no credit or respectability, even among the banditti of Algeziras.' In this agreeable and enlightened society, did Mr. Semple study the genius of the Spaniards for several weeks. But where are not Americans to be found? The Jews of the modern world, they are every where busy in extracting the sweets of lucre,—*quocunque modo rem*—indifferent whether it be from the industry or the vices of the world.

But we are anticipating our author. As he does not en-

tain a hope, (we presume his reasonable modesty) of instructing the world by his travels, since both time, opportunity, and genius failed him, Mr. S. doubtless flattered himself with another obtuse writer, that he 'could furnish an interesting narrative with many incidents, anecdotes, *jeux d'esprit*, and remarks, so as to make very pleasant reading*.' We shall therefore extract the marrow of the two volumes before us, and string together a collection of such passages as seem to be peculiarly enriched by the author's wit. Of this brilliant anthology, the first is supplied by the Portuguese pilot in the third page.

'He is ragged and meagre, but not badly made; and in place of boots, he has two wisps of straw wrapped round his legs. He seems perfectly conscious however of the dignity of his character, and that he is a man of some weight in society. He gives his orders with precision, and to shew his consequence reprimands without cause the sailor at the helm, who in return, asks him where he bought his boots.'

The prince regent of Portugal gives occasion to the second:

'He heads a procession of monks better than any man in Europe, and if the French could be beaten with wax-tapers, the Portuguese might give peace to the world.'

The Spanish ladies furnish the next remark of ingenuity:

'They walk with freedom; their eyes are dark and expressive, and their whole countenances have that bewitching air which an Englishman likes well enough to see in any woman except his wife.'

On the insignificance of the river Manzanares, which washes the capital of Spain, our flippant traveller observes,

'All the capitals of Europe stand upon great rivers, or arms of the sea, and therefore the Manzanares shall pass for a river.'

To the curious and discriminating traveller, Spain is the most interesting of all the European countries. The jealousy of the Spanish character, particularly towards those whose religious faith varies from their own, has combined with the want of accommodations and comforts, to deter the footsteps of curiosity, and to render it comparatively an unknown region. The dying embers of the Romish superstition are still kept alive and vigorous in Spain, and the fabric

* Boswell. Vid. Life of Johnson, vol. 3. p. 223.

of papal superstition, whose ruinous decay is more there than half concealed by the mist of distance and of bigotry, appears still possessed of splendour and of strength. The mixture of Roman, Gothic, and Moorish manners, all of which are to be traced in those of the modern Spaniards, display a striking dissimilarity from those of the other component parts of the great common-wealth of Europe. In his description of the prado, the place of public resort at Madrid, our author rises somewhat above himself.

‘One very broad walk adorned with these fountains, is thronged every fine evening with the best company, and on Sundays, the king, queen, and royal family, ride up and down the carriage road, and salute the people constantly as they pass. It is on the prado that the stranger may study with advantage the dress, the air, and the gait of the Spaniards; for then all pass in review before him, from the prince to the beggar. The nobleman alights from his carriage, and saunters among the throng, seemingly careless about his fine dress, and the ornaments at his button-hole, although nobody glances at them so often as himself; the citizen dresses in the mode general throughout Europe thirty years ago; whilst the lower classes that venture on the prado, still wear their cloaths thrown over the shoulder, and thus preserve the last reliques of the ancient toga. All the men wear large cocked hats, and all smoke cigars; for this latter purpose boys run up and down the prado with a kind of slow torch, which burns without flaming, and serves to light the cigars. In opposition to them, water carriers, with their porous, earthen vases and goblets, vend the cool water of the neighbouring fountains; and the various cries of fire, fire, and fresh water, water, are heard above the buzz of the mingled crowd. But the women principally attract the eyes of the stranger. Their simple and elegant dress, their veils, which serve any purpose but that of concealing their faces, the freedom of their walk, and their looks attractive, but not immodest, tend to make an Englishman forget for a moment that they are greatly inferior in point of real beauty to the women of his own country.

‘There is one custom which pleased me much, and which no where produces so striking an effect as on the prado. Exactly at sunset the bells of the churches and convents give the signal for repeating the evening prayer to the Virgin. In an instant the busy multitude is hushed and arrested, as if by magic. The carriages stop, the women veil their faces with their fans, the men take off their hats, and breathe out, or are supposed to breathe, a short prayer to the protecting Power which has brought them to the close of another day. After a short, a solemn, and not an unpleasing pause, the men bow and put on their hats, the women uncover their faces, the carriages drive on, and the whole crowd is again in motion as before. This is one of the few Catholic customs which appears to partake of piety without superstition, and divested of altars, candlesticks, tapers and images. I felt no reluctance to uncover my head among the

crowd under so noble a canopy as the vault of Heaven, where some of the stars already begin to appear. Those around me mutter a petition or a thanksgiving to their favourite saint, or to the Mother of God; but I have only a heretic though heartfelt prayer to offer for those far distant from me, a parent, a brother, a sister, or a friend.'

The account of the restraint imposed even on private conversation in the Spanish metropolis, if correct, is much beyond what we should have suspected even from the combined influence of a despotic government, the rigour of the inquisition, and the vigilance of a foreign power, jealous of the stifled indignation of an oppressed people.

'I regret to find their most private conversations cramped by the fear of speaking any thing which might come to the ears of a jealous government. I feel myself like all the rest, merely an appendage, and one of the slaves of the court. Spies wrapped up in large cloaks stand at the corners of all the streets. Men converse here in whispers and shrugs, and I am tired of being constantly reminded by my friends, that I must not speak with so much freedom.'

When the Court left Madrid for St. Ildephonso, 'the object of Mr. Temple's journey rendered it proper for him to follow it.' (P. 85.) Our curiosity is excited to know the nature of those objects which alternately detained our traveller, just as if he were a pickpocket, in the purlieus of a court, and the haunts of the lowest of mankind.

The cities of Segovia and Toledo, with the royal palaces of St. Ildephonso and the Escorial, were the only places of note visited by the author before he took his departure for Cadiz and Algeziras. The inhabitants of the Strand will be surprized to hear, that the noise of his postillion's whip, and the clattering of the horses over the stones, were sufficient to draw great numbers of people to the windows and doors of the streets, as Mr. Temple quitted the capital of the Spanish monarchy.

In a country so fertile of adventures as Spain has ever been, the reader would be disappointed if he did not hear something of murders, caverns, or other terrific ingredients of romance. Let us turn to the only dangers which our author has deemed of sufficient importance to be recorded :

'On removing a mat which lay at the bed-side, I found that it served to cover a hole; the entrance, as I saw by the help of my lamp, to a long dark vault. This, thought I immediately, is to answer two purposes; first for the murderers to come unawares upon the poor sleeper, and then to cast his body into. After some pause, I covered the hole as before, and then piled up all the chairs in the room upon it in such a manner that with the least motion

they must have fallen ; then having bolted the door, I placed my pistols ready cocked under my pillow, and thus secured, in spite of daggers and pale-faced assassins, soon fell fast asleep. Nothing disturbed me till the break of day, when my postillion called me at the hour I had appointed. I then took an opportunity of examining this dreadful cavern ; and discovered, oh, gentle reader ! that it was indeed no other than a large wine vault dug underneath the house, and the roof of which being only supported by beams of wood, had in some places decayed and fallen in.

* About two leagues from Aldea del Rio, as we were ascending a small hill, I beheld two men with long muskets, running as if to reach the summit before us. My guide called out that they were two robbers, which appearing to me very probable, I prepared for their reception ; and suffered him to advance about fifty yards in front. By this means I thought it not likely that the robbers would fall upon the guide, seeing that I was behind well mounted, armed and prepared, in case of need, to attack them. Had we been close together, so that there might have been a chance of hitting us both, they would certainly have fired. As it was, they halted with the utmost composure, and leaned upon their long muskets while I passed. I held my right hand upon my pistol in the holster, and looked upon them sternly. My guide was already so far ahead with the baggage that it would have been needless to attack me. Their looks were wild and savage ; their dress was composed chiefly of sheep skins, and besides their muskets and long knives, their girdles were stuck full of pistols. These were the only robbers I saw in Spain ; and should any traveller find himself in similar circumstances, I recommend the plan which I adopted, and which I had previously determined to pursue.

It seems to us more probable that, instead of robbers, these formidable gentry were nothing more than hunters, who lived on the produce of their guns. They must otherwise have been very young in their trade, to be deterred from their prey because Mr. Semple 'looked sternly on them : ' and after having dispatched or secured the guide, as they might easily have done had they been so disposed, it would have been very hard if their long muskets, long knives, and girdles full of pistols, had not together been a match for the single heroism of Mr. Semple.

The period at which this gentleman travelled through Spain, was certainly an interesting one: It was at the latter end of 1805, and he reached Cadiz a few days after the ever-memorable battle of Trafalgar. When he was yet at some distance from that city, he met couriers passing in all haste to Madrid. Mention was made of a great naval fight with the English, but the reports concerning the issue were various. As he approached nearer the coast accounts be-

gan to be more definite and more nearly resembling the truth. He met a Spanish gentleman, who taking him for a Frenchman, addressed him in that language in the following strain of condolence:

"Ah, what a misfortune is this!" How now, said I. "Have you not heard of the misfortune of our fleet?" said he, still taking me for a Frenchman: "there has been a great battle with the English. Your Admiral Villeneuve is taken prisoner, Magon is killed, and poor Gravina is arrived in Cadiz badly wounded."

Again, at an inn on the road:

"During supper, the attendant gave me a doleful narrative of the dreadful battle which had lately been fought. "The enemy," said he, "deceived us; they showed at first only an inferior number; but when the battle began, five and twenty fresh ships came and joined them. Only think of that! five and twenty fresh ships! By sea these English are innumerable, and fight well enough, but by land they can do nothing. *Oh no, par tierra no valen nada.*"

We shall not apologize for extracting every thing relative to the victory of Trafalgar. That day, so glorious to our national prowess, gives consequence to every trifle connected with it; and the appearance of the places adjacent to the scene of action, together with the feelings of our vanquished enemies on the occasion, the moral and physical effects of that eventful conflict, are likely to interest our readers at least as much as any other part of Mr. Semple's narrative.

"The ensuing morning, being the 29th, I found several boats preparing to pass over to Cadiz, and accordingly placed myself in one of them with my saddle and portmanteau. I had not been long there before a number of sailors, some with small bundles, others with nothing on them but a pair of trousers and a shirt, and others with their arms and heads bound up, came leaping one after another into the boat until it was quite full, and we put off. They were French sailors, whose vessel after escaping had been shipwrecked on the coast, and of eleven hundred men who composed the crew on the morning of the battle, only ninety-four, by their own account, had ever again reached the land. Soon after leaving the little creek on which el Puerto de Santa Maria is situated, we open the whole bay, and some of the terrible effects of the late battle became visible. On the north-west side, between el Puerto and Rota, lay a large Spanish ship, the San Raphael, seventy-four, broadside upon the rocks, bilged and the waves breaking over her. At the bottom of the bay was a large French ship, the name of which I have forgotten, aground, but upright. In the centre towards Cadiz lay a groupe of battered vessels, five or six in number, bored with cannon shot; some with two lower masts standing, others with only one and a piece of a bowsprit, and one without a single stump remaining from

stem to stern. "That," said the French sailors, "was the ship of the brave Magon, and on board of which he was killed. A little before he died, he called for one of his surviving officers, and pressing his hand, "Adieu, my friend," said he, and expired." I felt the force of this tribute paid to the memory of a brave man by his countrymen; but remembering some of his narratives respecting the English, recorded in the pages of the *Moniteur*, I could not help thinking, that a better acquaintance with those enemies might have taught him, if his soul was truly generous, to esteem and respect them. As the wind was contrary to our crossing over, the boat was obliged to make several tacks. In one of these we approached so near the shore, that we plainly discerned two dead bodies which the sea had thrown up. Presently one of a number of men on horseback, who for this sole purpose patrolled the beach, came up, and having observed the bodies, made a signal to others on foot among the bushes. Several of them came down and immediately began to dig a hole in the sand, into which they dragged the dead. Such is a faint account of the scenes to be observed in the bay of Cadiz eight days after the battle.

And again, on his arrival at Cadiz :

"I have already mentioned some of the effects of the great battle of Trafalgar, visible in crossing the bay of Cadiz. There a large vessel bilged and lying broadside upon the rocks, a second stranded, with all her masts gone, and a groupe of others which seemed to have escaped as by a miracle, after being so shattered by the British cannon ; all this possessed something of the terrible. But in Cadiz, the consequences, though equally apparent, were of a far different nature. Ten days after the battle they were still employed in bringing ashore the wounded, and spectacles were hourly displayed at the wharfs and through the streets sufficient to shock every heart not yet hardened to scenes of blood and human sufferings. When by the carelessness of the boatmen, and the surging of the sea, the boat struck against the stone piers, a horrid cry which pierced the soul arose from the mangled wretches on board. Many of the Spanish gentry assisted in bringing them ashore, with symptoms of much compassion ; yet as they were finely dressed it had something of the appearance of ostentation, if there could be ostentation at such a moment. It need not be doubted that an Englishman lent a willing hand to bear them up the steps to their litters ; yet the slightest false step made them shriek out, and I even yet shudder at the remembrance of the sound. On the tops of the pier the scene was affecting. The wounded were carrying away to the hospitals in every shape of human misery, whilst crouds of Spaniards either assisted or looked on with signs of horror. Meanwhile their companions who had escaped unhurt, walked up and down with folded arms and downcast eyes, whilst women sat upon heaps of arms, broken furniture and baggage, with their heads bent between their knees. I had no inclination to follow the litters of the wounded ; yet I learned that every hospital in Cadiz was already full, and that

convents and churches were forced to be appropriated to the reception of the remainder. If leaving the harbour I passed through the town to the point, I still beheld the terrible effects of the battle. As far as the eye could reach, the sandy side of the Isthmus, bordering on the Atlantic, was covered with masts and yards, the wrecks of ships, and here and there the bodies of the dead. Among others I noticed a topmast marked with the name of the *Swiftsure*, and the broad arrow of England, which only increased my anxiety to know how far the English had suffered; the Spaniards still continuing to affirm that they have lost their chief admiral and half their fleet. While surrounded by these wrecks, I mounted on the cross-trees of a mast which had been thrown ashore, and casting my eyes over the ocean, beheld at a great distance, several masts and portions of wreck still floating about. As the sea was now almost calm, with a slight swell, the effect produced by these objects had in it something of a sublime melancholy, and touched the soul with a remembrance of the sad vicissitudes of human affairs. The portions of floating wreck were visible from the ramparts; yet not a boat dared to venture out to examine or endeavour to tow them in, such was the apprehensions which still filled their minds, of the enemy.

Finally, it was interesting, although in a different point of view from any that I have hitherto touched on, to observe the different effect produced on the Spaniards and French by a common calamity. The Spaniard, more than usually grave and sedate, plunged into a profound melancholy, seemed to struggle with himself whether he should seek within his soul fresh resources against unwilling enemies, or turn his rage against his perfidious allies. The French, on the contrary, were now beginning to mingle threats and indecent oaths with those occasional fits of melancholy, which repeated and repeated proofs of defeat still continued to press upon them, as it were, in spite of their endeavours to the contrary. Not one of them, but would tell you, that if every ship had fought like his, the English would have been utterly defeated. Contiguous to my small apartment at the *posada* was a hall, where a party of five and twenty or thirty French soldiers were assembled every day at an early hour to dinner. The commencement of their meeting was generally silent; but as the repast went on, and the wine passed round, they grew loud in discourse and boastings. One had slain five English-men with his own hand; another seven, and some could not even tell how many they had rid the world of. One more modest than the rest, had only killed three; but how did this happen? An English vessel was preparing to board the ship in which he was. "A l'abordage" was the universal cry of the French. Meanwhile an unfortunate Englishman appeared ready to leap on board, when the ships were almost locked together; this hero brought him down like a crow. A second took his place, and shared the same fate. Strange as it may appear to wondering posterity a third succeeded, and was immediately sent to follow his companions into the profound abyss. "After this," cried he, with a loud oath, "no more of them shewed themselves there." "Non, non," exclaimed his comrades: "*apres cela ils ne s'y, sont plus montres*;" and immediately ten of them began to talk at once.

'After paying a silent and involuntary tribute of respect to this valorous Frenchman, who had only killed three Englishmen, because only three were opposed to him, I almost began to doubt whether my eyes had not deceived me, in the terrible symptoms of defeat which I imagined to have observed on the part of the allies. But the conversation of the naval officers at the public table, where I dined, served to counterbalance these murderous narrations, and to raise my opinion of the French character, degraded by such idle and misplaced rhodomontades. They canvassed with coolness the manœuvres of the two fleets, and the cause of their defeat. One ship had not done her duty, another was overpowered by numbers, and some had deserted them altogether. These and many other causes were alledged; "but after all," said they, "their fire was terrible." *Mais, apres tout, leur feu étoit terrible.* In two things, and only two, did the French and Spaniards agree, in mutually blaming each other, and in reckoning events from or before the battle. Such a thing happened so many days before the combat, or so many days after it: this was the universal mode of expression. The battle of Trafalgar seemed to form a new epoch, from which to compute events, although not yet marked in the national calendar, like the coronation of an emperor, or the birth of a prince.'

Mr. S. embarked at Algeziras on the 18th of December, and in fifteen days arrived at Leghorn, where they were obliged to perform a quarantine of double that time, though in the midst of winter, and from a port and country where no infectious disorders had for some time been prevalent. During this month of confinement, which must be one of the least agreeable of a man's life, all the entertainment they found was in hearing the national tunes of 'Jefferson's march,' and 'Yankee doodle-dandy,' with which, being under American colours, they were liberally treated by the musicians, who, in those regions of harmony, come off in boats by hundreds, to lay contributions on newly-arrived vessels.

On the first Sunday after his landing, the author wandered into the English burying ground, where he found the tomb of our predecessor Smollett,* and several others of what he calls his countrymen, an inaccurate expression enough for a *professed* American. (p. 62. vol. ii.) Instead of indulging his sensibility at any length on this subject, Mr. S. prudently contents himself with the following comprehensive assurance:

'In a word, my meditations on this occasion, were not unsuited to the place, the day, and this our isolated situation.'

* Smollett was for many years conductor of the Critical Review.

Oh ! that the novelists of the Minerva press were equally forbearing !

At Leghorn the author was fortunate enough to meet with two agreeable companions, in the persons of an old woman and her daughter, who, like himself, were going to Rome. The first occurrence worthy of mention, seems to have been his surprize at seeing each of the ladies take a spoonful of rum with their coffee at breakfast. The second, which some may deem still more curious, is the method adopted by the Italians of corking their wine. It is kept in flasks with long narrow necks, and a little oil is poured on the top, instead of corks. The air is thereby effectually excluded from the wine ; but the flask, of course, must always be kept upright, until the time of being used, when the oil is imbibed by means of a little cotton wool.

The first night they slept at Fornacetti, the second at Peggibonzi, at which latter place we have the following piece of information :

' As usual, the vettorino sat down with us at table, and chased away the tedious hours by relations, which made our Italian ladies laugh, and would have made an English servant girl blush. After supper I found the bed chamber, and all the accommodations, very similar to those of Fornacetti, except, and this except must for ever remain a blank in the history of my travels.'

No indifference can be so great as to resist speculating on the nature of this grand secret. Was it a disappointment similar to that experienced by Horace on a similar occasion, and when travelling in the same country ? '*Hic ego mendacem, &c.*' Does Mr. S. mean to insinuate aught to the dishonor of his fair and juvenile companion, whose good nature and familiarity he elsewhere extols ? Or was it merely the contagion of the first sentence of the above extract, which suggested to Mr. S. the idea of at once exciting without gratifying the curiosity of the reader, and indulging a vanity, common, we believe, to all men ?

We could have dispensed with the information which is gravely given in p. 47, that Rome is still ' seated near the Tyber.'

The ruins and curiosities of the mistress of the antient world, had but few attractions for the native of a new one. He did indeed visit St. Peter's, and after devoting a page of pity to those who worshipped the statue of the apostle by rubbing their heads backwards and forwards against the sole of his foot, he hurries on to Naples. On the road he overtook two French gentlemen who were also on their travels. One of them said he could talk a little English.

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On our author's requesting to hear him, we are told that he commenced as follows: 'Yes, sare, rost bif, G—dam, milord Jean.' Without any hesitation, we profess our utter disbelief, that any Frenchman, even among the lower orders of that well-bred people, ever uttered so absurd a sentence.

But we are dwelling too much at length on this paltry work, from which we can extract nothing but pertness and vulgarity. We shall rapidly dismiss him to Sicily, Malta, Smyrna, and Constantinople. His stay at these places furnishes a journal which occupies half a volume, equally insipid with what precedes it. When on board a Turkish vessel, he is struck by one of the Mussulman sailors, whom he with great indignation attacks and upsets in an instant, telling him at the same time that he is an Englishman and would not take a blow. To say nothing of our doubts of Mr. Semple's veracity, (for a single unassisted Christian would hardly, we suspect, have shewn such an exuberance of courage with impunity amongst a whole crew of Mussulmen,) we would ask him, are such incidents as these likely to edify or concern the public? And yet Mr. S. thinks it a hardship that 'individuals cannot publish their hasty remarks without running the risk of being assailed by the most virulent censures, and of being held up as an object of ridicule and contempt. The fatal consequence of the severity of criticism, (he continues) will be that by degrees people will be induced to suppress them altogether.' (Pref.) Oh! that these happy effects, predicted and deprecated by Mr. Semple, may soon be verified! those golden days of literature, when 'only such as are proficient in literature' (we quote his own words) shall come forward to enlighten the world, and when travellers like himself, incompetent alike to remark or to relate, shall 'remain the heroes of their own fire-side.' (Pref. p. ix.) Mr. S. is not aware that he could not pay a greater compliment to the critics of the present day, than in charging them with deterring the publication of useless manuscripts. The author who prefaces his work by attempting to depreciate the value of criticism, betrays infallible proofs of conscious weakness. Its effects may be advantageous; they cannot be injurious. The exercise of legitimate and honourable criticism cannot fail to correct the taste, enlighten the judgment, and enlarge the knowledge of the age. If it accomplishes the end which Mr. S. so much dreads, that of preventing futile publications, it essentially serves the cause of literature and the community. But even if, as he seems to suppose, and as Mr. Phillips of New Bridge-street takes such pains to inculcate, it should be made subservient to the dictates of malevolence, if it should be

abused by ignorance, or corrupted by lucre, the evil will carry with it its own remedy. As we have hinted to that book-seller on a former* occasion, the efforts of prejudice or of malevolence never yet condemned to oblivion a work that deserved to live, and the most illustrious ornaments of the literary history of our country survive to instruct and delight remotest ages, while the impotent efforts of their rivals to depreciate their glory are despised and forgotten.

Telumque imbelli sine ictu
Conjecit, rauco quod protinus ære repulsum
In summo clypei nequicquam umbone pendit.

We shall pass over in silence the remarks which are afforded in these volumes on the Italian and Turkish characters, as we also did the feeble and indefinite delineation of that of the Spaniards. The political disquisition on the expediency of England's possessing herself of all the islands of the Archipelago, will meet with similar neglect from us, as its distinguishing feature is neither logical acumen, nor political profundity. But to give a notion of the strain in which our author projects his improvements, we shall transcribe for the conclusion of our article, the plans which the contemplation of the town and harbour of Smyrna suggests to this dreaming enthusiast, and we think they will leave some doubt on the reader's mind of the perfect sanity of an author, who can thus coolly sit down and build castles in the air.

' Were I Sultan of Smyrna, I would cause a capacious basin to be hollowed out round Diana's Pool, which would soon be converted into a small but beautiful lake, the borders of which I would plant thickly with trees, the tall cypress, the spreading oak and the elm, and near them should grow the fig tree, the orange, the olive, and the vine. When my lake was once filled, the river would flow the same as before, and then I would turn my attention towards it. I would deepen it in some parts, widen it in others, make it flow in a straight line here, and there give it a noble curve. By the help of a single lock, a sufficient depth of water might always be preserved for boats even of a considerable burthen, besides supplying innumerable rills, to be conveyed over the whole of that extensive flat, at the head of the Gulph of Smyrna, which in the course of ages has been gained from the sea. Then all this noble plain, which at present exhibits here a garden, there a sandy flat, and there a reedy marsh, would become one garden, thickly studded with houses. This plain would then, as now, be bounded on one side by the sea, and on the other by the steep mountains which curve round the head of the gulph. But then I cannot help thinking that my fig

* Crit. Rev. May, 1806. Vol. 8. p. 109.

trees and vines would cross the narrow road of Burnébbat, and creep up the surrounding hills. I am certain they would. Nay, I vow to Heaven they shall. With that I rise in an exstasy, and overturn at once my seat, and my hypothesis. I wake from my kingly dream, and find myself an Englishman in a foreign land, the abode of slavery. Nay, even the few English that are here know me not; and were I to die to-morrow would follow me to the grave without a tear. Why then should I alone struggle with the despotism which oppresses the whole empire, and crushes every virtuous effort in the bud? I will be Greek; and as I see no Turk near me I will bury all my woes in momentary oblivion. Adieu, dreams for the happiness of my brother men, why should they make me unhappy? Give me wine that I may forget my wretchedness. Give me wine, whether it be of Scio or Mytelene, that I may plunge into a delirious joy, and become so far emboldened as to dare secretly to curse my oppressors.'

ART. XI.—*Travels in Scotland by an unusual Route; with a Trip to the Orkneys and Hebrides; containing Hints for Improvements in Agriculture and Commerce, with Characters and Anecdotes; embellished with Views of striking Objects, and a Map including the Caledonian Canal. By the Rev. James Hall, A. M. In two Volumes. 8vo. 11. 6s. Johnson. 1807.*

THOUGH these travels discover no great depth of reflection, yet there are few readers who will not find abundance of amusement in the perusal. Where the narrative might otherwise stagnate in dullness, Mr. Hall takes care to enliven it by variety of anecdote. Of anecdote indeed Mr. H. appears to possess a copious store; and though he may sometimes digress a little too far from the point before him for the sake of introducing a sample, yet we prosecute our journey with pleasure, and are far from being offended with the author for treating us with such a diversity of agreeable fare upon the way.

Mr. Hall left Edinburgh on the 15th of April 1803, with the resolution of visiting the whole of Scotia's sea-beat coast, and of inspecting the banks of her most celebrated streams. The limits of our Review will not permit us to accompany Mr. H. in every part of this circuitous and meandering route; but, though we shall often let him pursue his way unnoticed and alone, yet we shall occasionally overtake him at some of his principal places of reflection or of rest, where we shall take the liberty of introducing him to the acquaintance of our readers; and Mr. H. we trust, will not be displeased

with us for placing him in a circle of such genteel company; nor do we think that they will regret forming an acquaintance with such a communicative and entertaining gentleman as Mr. H.

At Stirling, where our traveller stopped for a few days to rest himself and his poney, we learn that the antient castle, which has sustained many a vigorous assault and stubborn siege, is now converted into barracks for soldiers and invalids. Many of the persons who were killed here in 1745, are said to have been buried without coffins under such a shallow covering of earth that in a few days many of their noses were seen peeping above ground. This calls to Mr. H.'s recollection an œconomical practice, which prevails in some parishes on both sides of the Tweed, of dropping the pauper—dead out of the coffin into the grave; and thus making one such convenient receptacle of wood serve to convey to their long home the deceased of many successive years. Stirling, according to the account of Mr. H. seems to afford a soil very favourable for diversity of opinions. For the religionists are said to exhibit a numerous and motley mass of papists, churchmen and high-flyers; Cameronians, Glassites, Episcopalians, Independants, Whitfieldites, Burg-hers, Antiburghers, Unitarians, Arminians, Socinians, Universal Redemptionists, Calvinists, Haldanites, Missionaries, &c. &c. All these different sects, as usual, wrangle with each other, without always knowing the subject of dispute; but their logical conflicts serve to keep the attention awake to the opinions which they profess, and attach an interest to such points of speculation which they would not otherwise possess. The zeal of the missionaries is said to be diffusing its heat even over the chilly summits of the Highlands; and the snowy top of Ben Lomond will probably ere long attest the miracles of methodism. Some of the good people at Stirling have such an invincible antipathy to any *moral* edification from the pulpit, as to doubt whether the preacher who employs it, be not in a fair way to be d—m—d. A Miss S——t, who appears to have been inoculated with the true virus of proselyting zeal, one day waited on the respectable, learned and worthy Dr. Bisset, 'expressly,' as she said, 'to see if he was in the way to heaven.' The Doctor whose moral preaching, unmixed with any orthodox cant, had been eminently successful in deterring from the commission of crimes, replied that he had now for 69 years had his soul in his own keeping; and that he felt no inclination to put it in trust.

While Mr. H. was sauntering in the church yard of Clackmannan, he was at some pains to decypher an inscrip-

tion on one of the stones, from which he learned that the person who was interred below, had, when living, gone to solicit alms at the castle. The haughty lord, who happened to espy his approach, told the poor mendicant in no very courteous terms

‘To go to hell. The poor man replied I need not go there, I am just come from it. And pray what is going on there? Why, my lord, they are playing the same game there as here, taking in the rich and holding out the poor.’

This suggestion was but ill-brooked by the haughty chief; he had the man seized, a roasted egg was put under each armpit, his arms were tied down, and he was tormented till he died.

At Skilbeggie, to which he proceeded from Clackmannan, Mr. H. informs us that there is ‘one of the largest distilleries in Britain, perhaps in Europe.’ A distillery may rank far above a gunpowder mill, or a sword manufactory in the way in which it facilitates the destruction of the human race. But the life of man, in the calculations of politicians, is thought of little moment when compared with the gratifications of avarice or ambition. The revenue is enriched by the distillation of poison; and he would be esteemed but a very lukewarm friend to the government, who should propose that this poison should be prohibited, while it so powerfully seconded the projects of taxation.

At Kincardine on the banks of the Forth, ‘is one of the finest free-stone quarries in Europe. Below the surface, and while in the quarry, the stone is white, soft, and easy to work, but when exposed to the air, it becomes hard and beautifully white.’ It is said to be superior to the stone of Portland, and to take a higher polish. Mr. H. having found Kincardine noted for the longevity of its inhabitants, very gravely asks whether there is ‘any connection between this circumstance, and the stratum of free-stone on which it stands?’ At Culross our traveller remarks the encouragement which the strolling preachers who traverse the country, derive from the *itching* ears of the religious Scots. The reader will please to observe that we here use the word in italics in its figurative and scriptural sense, as we make no doubt that whatever truth there might have been in the scandalous reports of former times, the Scots have long ceased to be troubled with any other than a metaphorical *itching* in their ears or any other part of their persons. At Dumfermline, Mr. H. beheld with sensitive complacency, the tomb of the great and gallant Robert Bruce, whose name constitutes a pleasurable resting-place in the annals

of Scottish History. It is well-known that on his death-bed, this brave king requested that flower of chivalry, the Lord James Douglas, to have his heart embalmed immediately after his death, and undertake the charge of conveying it to Jerusalem, and see it deposited in the sepulchre of Christ. The author very properly subjoins in a note the affecting account of this event, which we find in the interesting narrative of Froissart. At Inverkeithing, our inquisitive traveller, having found the church door open, went in; and heard a clergyman holding forth on this edifying text; '*thou shalt not seeth a kid in its mother's milk.*' The priest expatiated much and long on the barbarity of the practice, and the sinfulness of the dish; but unfortunately the inhabitants of Inverkeithing had hardly ever seen a kid in their lives, and therefore were not very likely to have recourse to this species of culinary abomination.

The Scots appear formerly to have had an antipathy to fish, and, by way of contempt, to have called their more southern neighbours by the name of *fish-eaters*. To this prejudice may be traced the long neglect of the fisheries in that part of the island. This prejudice is dying away, but traces of it were still observed by our traveller at Kincardine; and he informs us that in the Highlands there are several sorts of fish which the inhabitants could not readily be induced to touch; and even pork is said to have been held in abomination among this simple and hardy race till about a century ago. Mr. Hall informs us that the little isle of May, near the coast of Fife, which appears to be inhabited by a simple and unvitiated race, is visited by the ecclesiastical functionary from Pittenweem only once in twelve months, when he performs all the ceremonies that may be wanted in the way of matrimony and of baptism; besides adding a word or two of salutary exhortation. This exhortation ought to consist of good solid stuff; as it is to last them till another revolving year. The auditors, when they receive this annual boon of spiritual communication, seem determined that it should not go in at one ear and out at the other; for which purpose they all turn their backs to the preacher during the delivery; probably intending to let the pious boon enter through the tube of the spine, and thus find its way to the brain without any possibility of immediate escape. When Mr. Hall reached St. Andrews, he beheld only the faint appearance of its antient splendour and magnificence. The cathedral church, the castle, the residence of the archbishops, and not unfrequently of the kings, were crumbling in decay; one long street presents a heap of ruins; and some other parts of the city which are overgrown with grass,

bear melancholy testimony to the desertion of the place. Even the university does not flourish; but at this we were not surprised, when we learned that lord Melville was esteemed the tutelary genius of the place: his lordship may encourage the multiplication of such men as Mr. Trotter, but his smiles were never yet propitious to the expansion of ability or worth. However, notwithstanding the moral and the material decay which are so perceptible in this once flourishing spot, we were not sorry to be informed by our talkative traveller that the inhabitants are still alive to the sensations of festivity and mirth; for he tells us, that they keep 'eating and drinking, marrying and giving in marriage.' The professorships of the united college, under the righteous inspection of chancellor lord Melville, appear to be bestowed more for the purpose of increasing political influence, than of diffusing erudition. One of these reverend professors ycleped George Hill, D.D. some time ago preached a most loyal and time-serving sermon, of which the **ACQUITTED DELINQUENT** caused some thousands of copies to be printed and distributed, as we are led to believe, out of the public purse. Mr. Hall enters into a very copious detail of the past and the present state of the university of St. Andrews, which he varies with numerous anecdotes of Dr. Wilkie, the author of the *Epigoniad*, and other persons who have been brought up at this antient seminary of erudition. The university, which flourished exceedingly under the judicious superintendence of the late lord Kinnoul, seems to have been rapidly declining in credit and in numbers since the place of chancellor was bestowed on lord Melville. Under his lordship's patronage the professorships are degenerating into perfect sinecures, and learning and virtue are quitting the place. Mr. Hall informs us that the colleges of St. Andrews have a revenue more than four times greater than their expenditure; but the employment of the overplus is a matter of dubious speculation. Certain it is, if we may credit the accounts of Mr. H. that no part of it is devoted to the encouragement of literature and science.

As we have always been curious in investigating the different effects of different modes of culture on the human being, we read with interest the account which Mr. H. gives p. 161. Vol. 1. of two young ladies who had been bred up from their infancy in an almost total seclusion from the world, as they had never on any account been permitted to pass the bounds of their father's garden, till they had reached the period of womanhood. Mr. H. met them walking with their two brothers in St. Andrews soon after their first emancipation from this secluded state. He represents them as two ve-

ry handsome females, but rather fantastically dressed. As they were not shy, and our traveller does not appear to have laboured under that defect, they fell into conversation with each other. Mr. H. informs us that 'though they were composed of excellent flesh and blood, and had tolerably good natural parts, and a considerable share of that knowledge which arises from books, they knew nothing of real life.' Their father, it seems, had lost a beloved wife, which had made him more than usually solicitous about the education of the children whom she had left behind.

'Being in easy circumstances, and having a large garden, or rather field, including a garden surrounded by a high wall, he resolved to call in teachers to instruct them in all the branches of knowledge, but that they should never go without his premises till they were grown up and could think and act for themselves.

'At length, after having scarcely seen any human face but their teachers, they were permitted to sally out and see whether the world and men were what they are represented in books. The one was seventeen and the other not much younger, and though they knew music, geography, history, &c. &c. astonishingly well, and were accomplished in a variety of points, when they saw a handsome young man they could not help standing and gazing at him.'

They asked Mr. H. why he did not wear knee-buckles, and how much the narrow ribband that tied his shoes might cost; besides a number of other questions, such as children commonly ask. A young man without any fortune, who had sometimes access to the father's house, took an opportunity of whispering in the ear of one of them,

'Will you marry me?' to which she readily answered; *Yes, I will.* An elopement to Edinburgh was concerted and made. They were married, and the affectionate father was soon reconciled to the marriage.'

This experiment does not seem to be favourable to such a system of education, as would keep young people ignorant of the living world till the period when they are in most danger of being ensnared by its temptations and its wiles.

If we may form any conjecture respecting the disposition of a people from the nature of their amusements, we should be tempted to ascribe no small share of savage barbarity to the inhabitants of Mägus Muir, a few miles west from St. Andrews. Among other inhuman sports, they have what is called a *goose race*. A goose is suspended by the feet from a sort of gallows, its neck having been previously stripped of the feathers and rendered slippery with soap or grease. The

savages riding below, raise themselves as they pass from their seats as far as they can to get hold of the goose's head, which it naturally raises up to avoid them ; and he who succeeds in pulling off the head is said to gain the race !!!

* To see the poor animal writhing its neck and trying to avoid the savage hand that is about to pull off its head, seems to afford the people in this part of the country a high gratification.*

At Cupar, which is the chief town in Fife, our traveller found, as usual, the religious part of the community, having no common centre of union, such as we proposed in our review of Mr. Lancaster, &c. splitting into a diversity of sects. One gentleman, thinking that the kiss spoken of by St. Paul ought to be literally understood, had made this distinctive circumstance the origin of a new sect ; and as the founder happened himself to have three very elegant daughters, the converts did not want incentives to the practice of the initiating ceremony. Our traveller gives the following description of the Aichil Hills, a tract of country which lies between the Forth and the Frith of Tay, of which the length is upwards of thirty miles and the medium breadth about five.

* It may be called the Arcadia of Scotland. Hills verdant to their summits, the lower parts covered with grain, the middle with herds of cattle, and the higher with flocks of sheep ; rivulets stealing through the defiles of these hills, or falling in murmurs from rock to rock ; solitary hamlets and farmsteads now skirted with natural woods of hazel, oak, birch, and some other kinds interspersed, and now inclosed within their soft embrace, and above all an equal or modest division and distribution of property ; conspire to render the Aichil Hills one of the sweetest as well as happiest regions in Britain, &c.*

Our traveller informs us that about twenty or thirty years ago the inhabitants of these hills were remarkable for the simplicity of their manners, though, he says, that the habits of pastoral indolence, and the frequent intercourse of the sexes in rural and retired occupations, often gave occasion to intercourse of another kind, for which the discipline of the kirk required penance to be done on the *catty stool*, when the offenders were rebuked for three successive Sundays in the face of the congregation.

When Mr. Hall reaches the town of Abernethy, he favours us with an account of the Seceders, a sect who inherit the gloomy austerity of the old Covenanters. The Seceders, who are separatists from the kirk, are severe disciplinarians, rigid antinomians, and sticklers for particular and arbitrary election. Our traveller next describes a congregation

of Sandemanians and Bereans who are settled at Newburgh, and are said to bear a resemblance to the Epicureans of old. Mr. H. says that 'they live well and are merry:' and he adds that 'they are very amorous.' The Bereans make a sort of festival of the Lord's Supper; they eat bread and circulate the glass; while they talk about heaven and the church. The Berean church at Newburgh was established by a Mr. Pirie, a man of sagacity and learning, but of a speculative turn and variable opinions. He exhibited a singular proof of his visionary propensities in an attempt to show that the French revolution was predicted in the Revelations. In the XVIth chapter of that spurious production the author says that he saw '*three unclean spirits, like frogs, that were the spirits of devils working miracles.*' Mr. Pirie's ingenuity in accommodating this passage to his preconceived hypothesis is at least equal to that of Mr. Faber and other fanciful expositors.

'Frogs, says Mr. Pirie, are a natural emblem of Frenchmen, as frogs furnish a dish of food very common in that country, and no nation partakes so much of that reptile. Frogs dwell in and issue from low unclean and loathsome cells: and what cells more unclean and loathsome than those of the Jacobins, Cordeliers and disguised Jesuits, from whence the convention sprung? Again, frogs puff themselves up with air, are boastful, loquacious, yet still repeating the same harsh uncouth notes; and tell me when or where any society or even rabble of men has ever dunned our ears with such a profusion of big swelling words of vanity as the convention? Spawning tadpoles of constitutions, they have stunned us with the most vociferous, harsh and hideous sounds. Terror is the word of the day. A little more blood! No mercy! No humanity! This is surely the voice of the bull-frog, whose croaking is terrific, and whose voracity is insatiable.'

We have no doubt that all this was perfectly convincing to Mr. Pirie's Berean congregation; and that all the old women were struck with the remarkable resemblance between the *bull-frog* and the *convention*. We earnestly recommend it to Mr. Faber not to omit the insertion of the bull-frog, with a coloured portrait of the same, in the next edition of his Prophecies. At Abernethy our traveller informs us that the inhabitants have 'milk, eggs, potatoes, porridge and preaching in abundance.'

At Pitkethley wells, our author had ocular, and probably *nasal* proof of the purgative potency of the water, for the ladies and gentlemen, as is said to be the long-admired custom in Scotland, were *sub dio* and almost every where in sight of one another getting rid of its effects. We were happy

to be informed that the effervescence of infidelity which was manifested in Perth at the commencement of the French revolution has passed away. Perth has, at different periods of its history, been renowned for the two extremes of religious and irreligious zeal; but at present a happy medium seems likely to take place between the two. That religious temperament, which is most devoutly to be desired as the characteristic of our countrymen on both sides the Tweed, consists in an indifference to the forms and a rational attention to the essentials of christianity. We have heard many preachers and others complain of the religious indifference of the present age; but according to our notions, that indifference, as far as it is appended exclusively to the ceremonial matter of religion, is no common good; for a very little observation will teach us that a bigoted attachment to the *forms* is usually accompanied with scandalous neglect of the *essentials* of christianity; while a real regard for the *essentials* will naturally generate an indifference to the *forms*. At Dundee our traveller fell into company with some persons belonging to the sect of the Glassites; whose principles seem in such direct opposition to those of Mr. Malthus; for their maxim is to marry as early as they can. This sect is perhaps determined not to have any mixture of old maids among them; all ladies, therefore, who dread the long retention of virginity, should become Glassites; and thus be dispossessed of the uneasy apprehension.

Mr. H. now proceeds through Aberdeen, Banff, Lochabers, Inverness, Dornoch, Thurso, and a variety of other places, entertaining us all the way with a diversity of anecdotes which he picked up on his route, till he is ferried over to the Orkneys. In this remote corner of the British empire, our traveller was present at an assembly, in which he informs us that he beheld as much mirth and fashion as he ever witnessed at London or Bath. We were glad to learn that the manufacture of straw hats had been introduced here, and that it was likely to furnish profitable employment for the younger part of the female population. We are next presented with an interesting account of the present state of the Shetland isles from the communication of a friend. The inhabitants are great consumers of spirits and of coarse black tea. The Shetland horses, which seldom receive any allowance of fodder in the severest winters, are said to be longer-lived than any other known variety of the species. But the inhabitants of these islands depend for their chief supplies of food on the fisheries, of which they possess almost every species that is to be found on the British coast; and

on the immense diversity of sea-fowl which abound on their perpendicular and rocky shores.

Our traveller next sets sail for the Western Isles whither however we must let him proceed by himself, as we shall not have leisure to attend him thither, or to Fort William, Dumbarton and Glasgow in his way back to Edinburgh. We have found Mr. H. as far as we have had leisure to keep his company, a loquacious and gossiping, but on the whole agreeable acquaintance;—some of his stories might have been omitted with great advantage to his book; as also some of his engravings, and particularly that of Mr. ——— receiving a visitor in his shirt in the presence of his wife. We cannot reckon such a sight among the picturesque beauties of Scotland, some of which Mr. H. has accurately delineated and had elegantly engraved.

ART. XII.—*An Elementary Course of the Sciences and Philosophy: contained in a Series of Lectures delivered by the Author to his own Pupils, upon the principal Branches of elementary Mathematics, Mechanics, Astronomy, and Cosmography. By J. B. Florian Jolly, A.M. 2 Vols. 8vo. Stockdale. 1806.*

THESE two volumes are the first part of a course of general knowledge, conducted upon a plan explained by the author in an Essay upon an analytical Course of Studies, published about ten years ago. The first of them contains Lectures upon Arithmetic, and the Elements of general Calculation; the second contains Elementary Geometry and Plane Trigonometry.

‘The reader,’ says Mr. Florian-Jolly in his preface, ‘will not be able to form a just idea of the plan and method here proposed by running his eye cursorily over this volume: for this reason I must intreat him not to be discouraged at the seeming immensity of the system, until he has reflected profoundly on the introduction which is printed along with it.’

Primâ-facie we felt no great reason to be appalled by a couple of volumes of arithmetic and geometry: but roused by this good-natured warning of Mr. F.J. we wiped our spectacles a second time, and summoned up all our courage to enable us to master his introduction. And indeed we found we had good reason for putting our shoulder lustily to the wheel, for at the onset we were gravelled by some propositions much beyond our comprehension: this we were much inclined at first to set to the score of our own dulness; but as in the parts

which we conceive that we did understand we thought we met with here and there an egregious blunder, we are inclined to solace ourselves with the supposition that our author may indulge now and then in the *false profound*, and, perchance, may not always have thoroughly understood his own meaning. The relations of man, he tell us, which forms the basis of all human knowledge, are three-fold; 1st. to natural beings; 2nd. to himself; 3d. to other men. The first and third of these propositions are intelligible enough; but what is to be understood by the relation of a man to himself we cannot for our life comprehend. By the term relation we understand the result of the examination and comparison of different objects; nor can the term be predicated of one and the same object according to any propriety of language, and in plain words, is little better than nonsense. Mr. Florian Jolly goes on to inform us with great gravity, that what does not affect our senses can excite in us no perception, no ideas, and must remain hidden from us for ever. A notable discovery truly! But as to us *to affect the senses*, to excite perception and ideas, are only so many words meaning exactly the same thing, we fear we shall not reap much benefit from it.

He goes on to inform us that the general attributes we remark in every being are quantity, extension, and motion. But we would ask what is quantity as contradistinguished from extension? Is not extension a species of quantity? Whether by this last term Mr. F. J. means number or solidity, we are unable to tell; though we rather conjecture the former. If so, he has neglected the most prominent of the primary qualities, which enter into our complex idea of matter.

But we are desirous to do justice to Mr. F. J. and acknowledge with pleasure, that when he descends from his metaphysical Pegasus, and particularly when he condescends to be the plain schoolmaster, he evinces a sound judgment, and an accurate knowledge, both of the proper objects of elementary education, and of the powers and capacities of the youthful mind.

'Education,' he well observes, 'is the noviciate of life; and in life manifold and various are the stations. One cannot decide which of them would best suit a subject of whose dispositions and capacity we are ignorant; on the contrary, by teaching him during his youth to know the different means of being useful to society, he will be prepared to serve it afterwards in all its employments: by opening to him the entrance, and by pointing out to him the tract of the different courses he may travel through, he will have acquired light enough to choose that which agrees the best with his taste and his talents.'

He might have added that the elementary parts of all knowledge are those which are most repulsive and barren. They ought therefore to be entered upon early in life, when the memory is active, but the imagination dormant. If they are now neglected, ardent indeed must be the mind which will labour at riper years in a soil apparently so rough and ungrateful. This is one powerful reason why the mathematics should not be delayed, perhaps even to the period of adolescence. Dr. Johnson has, in his usual dictatorial manner, pronounced these studies to be unfit to form a part of the ordinary scholastic discipline. But Johnson was himself wholly ignorant of the mathematics, and the sciences dependent upon them; and his vanity would not suffer him to acknowledge a branch of knowledge to be essential to a well-educated gentleman, in which he was himself utterly deficient. Mr. Florian Jolly has combated the doctor's arguments with much success. We think that the general opinion and spirit of the times are in unison with Mr. F. J.'s doctrine, and that both parents in general, and the teachers of our respectable seminaries are more and more sensible of the importance of these studies. Indeed, it is ridiculous to esteem any course of education to be complete, which does not comprehend the elements of a species of learning, which is of universal application, and the foundation of almost all that is solid and valuable in human knowledge. And yet it is no less strange than true, that many a *soi-disant* scholar is sent from our public schools, who is not acquainted even with his multiplication table.

Equally judicious are his reflections on a prevailing custom of attempting to convert the objects of serious study into a species of play. This piece of pedantic folly cannot, we think, be too soon suppressed, and we can only blame Mr. F. for giving it any quarter, by allowing the use of it to very young children. We would ask, what time of life is too early to receive the important lesson, that no day should be suffered to pass without some serious and useful occupation? On this subject Mr. F. says,

'I cannot too strongly deprecate the system that lately prevailed of turning every science into a GAME. This method, which may very well answer to teach young children their letters, some parts of geography, and some historical facts, instead of saving pains in the higher departments, will prove in the end the source of the greatest difficulties. Young persons instructed in this manner not only have but a smattering in every branch of knowledge; but, what is worse, they acquire a way of trifling, of considering study as a mere plaything, and when they are afterwards obliged to apply themselves

earnestly to matters of importance, they have to conquer at once their ignorance, and their idle and frivolous habits. Let it never be forgotten, that our whole life is to be a continual study; that every day ought to make some addition to our information, to our wisdom: and, therefore, the most essential thing young people can be taught is *HOW TO LEARN.*'

Into the particulars of Mr. Florian Jolly's work we cannot be expected to enter minutely. We have, however, examined various parts of it, and have reason to believe it executed with neatness, precision and perspicuity. We cannot help thinking that in the arithmetical part he has been prodigal of his own labour, by elucidations unnecessarily copious and diffuse. It is singular, but true, that the foundations, upon which are grounded the rules of common arithmetic, are very difficult to comprehend, and consequently till the pupil has gained considerable mathematical skill and expertness not easily acquired. Nor is it of much moment. In all parts of education the memory is exercised before the reason; and indeed ultimately for the sake of the reason. Now arithmetical demonstrations are nothing more than verbal truths, dependent upon the arbitrary and artificial structure of the signs, and are commonly too complicated for young minds, whilst they lead to no useful results. Mr. Florian Jolly's sneer therefore at the works of his fellow-labourers in the same field, 'where,' he tells us, 'the rules are given like the receipts in the House-keeper's Assistant, without having one principle explained on which they are founded,' appears to us, to use the mildest language, to be very much misplaced.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

RELIGION.

ART. 13.—*The Cause of the Increase of Methodism, and Dissention, and of the Popularity of what is called Evangelical Preaching, and the Means of obviating them, considered in a Sermon, preached at the Visitation of the Rev. the Archdeacon of Leicester, held at Melton Mowbray, June 20, 1805, with Appendixes, &c. &c. By Robert Acklom Ingram, B. D. 8vo. 4s. Hatchard. 1807.*

WHERE a country is divided into numerous sects, of very oppo-

site principles and tenets, the duty of the government seems to be, as far as possible to promote among them all the spirit of mutual charity and forbearance, that the malign and unsocial passions may not mingle with their differences in points of speculation. For this purpose, in those countries in which a religious establishment is incorporated with the political institutions of the state, that establishment ought to be made the centre of union, of charity and peace. How is this to be effected? We answer; let the service of the establishment be so regulated as to teach nothing but the essentials of christianity, in the truth of which all sects are agreed, without insisting on points of inferior importance, respecting which they differ. The establishment would thus serve as the focus of rational illumination and the ark of evangelical peace. All sects agree that Jesus was the Messiah, that he was divinely commissioned to teach the will of God, that he performed various miracles in support of his pretensions, and that after being crucified, he rose from the dead. On these four simple and irrefragable truths, every religious sect has a basis wide enough for public instruction and for universal charity. In the moral corollaries which would follow from the few simple propositions which we have stated, there would be ample sanctions for the practice of moral duty; there would be terror for the sinner and encouragement for the righteous; hope for the desponding and comfort for the sick. To elevate the superfluities or accessaries of christianity into the essentials, is only to multiply the causes of dissension; and to open the sluices of sectarian hostility. We cannot better evince our regard for the religious establishment of this country, than by endeavouring to banish all causes of dissension from its walls, and all reasonable grounds of separation from its worship. And is this great end so likely to be produced in any other way as by laying no stress on uncertain doctrines and controverted opinions; but directing the attention to those great and momentous truths which are as simple as they are important; and which alone are in unison with the principles of universal charity?

In Mr. Ingram's pamphlet we have met with many judicious observations; and we particularly recommend the Appendix, No. 11, from p. 25 to p. 49, to the serious perusal of the clergy.

ART. 14.—*A Sermon preached at the Temple, May 31st, and at Berkley Chapel, Berkley Square, June 28th, upon the Conduct to be observed by the Established Church towards Catholics and other Dissenters. By the Rev. Sidney Smith, A. M. late Fellow of New College, Oxford. 1s. Carpenter. 1807.*

THE pulpit is never more honoured than when it is employed for the purpose of appeasing the animosities of sects, and of inculcating the principles of universal charity. We have beheld with regret, many clergymen of the establishment, preaching sermons full of unmerciful invective and abuse, against catholics and dissenters. But such is not the spirit of Mr. Smith; and we request him to proceed as he has begun; and to press on the attention of his audience the neces-

sity of emancipating the catholics from the absurd restrictions by which are they oppressed, and of abolishing all religious tests, which, instead of strengthening the establishment, render it an object of hostility and hate.

ART. 15.—*A Catechism for the Use of all the Churches in the French Empire ; to which are prefixed the Pope's Bull, and the Archbishop's Mandamus. Translated from the Original, with an Introduction and Notes, by David Bogue, Author of an Essay on the New Testament.* 8vo. 3s. 6d. Williams and Smith. 1806.

IF we may judge from the specimen before us, the Romish religion is nearly the same as it was before the revolution. Much of its pomp and splendour it has lost ; its immense endowments and princely revenues are all gone ; but its ghostly pretensions are made subservient to the views of Buonaparte.

POLITICS.

ART. 16.—*Letters on capital Punishments, addressed to the English Judges. By Beccaria Anglicus.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. Johnson, 1807.

REWARDS and punishments constitute a part of the moral government of God, even in this uncertain world. Now, if we consider what is the proper end of punishment, as it is administered by the Deity in this probationary life, we shall find that it is to promote the moral reformation of the offender, and to prevent the repetition of the offence. Almost every act of vice brings with it a concomitant punishment ; and this punishment tends to produce the sentiment of regret, and to fortify the resolution to amend. We do not say that this is always or even usually the case ; but we affirm that such are the certain tendencies of those punishments, which are inflicted, in the common course of things, according to the providential appointments of God. When civil government, which in some measure arrogates the attributes of the Deity, exercises the right of punishment over its subjects, it should be particularly careful that nothing vindictive or cruel should enter into the consideration. Pain is only so far the end of punishment, as it promotes a nobler end, the moral good of the person on whom it is inflicted. Justice requires that the punishment should never exceed the degree of the offence ; and charity, which considers the imperfections of humanity, and mitigates the rigours of justice, will often suggest that it should be less. But capital punishments defeat the very end of punishment ;—**THE REFORMATION OF THE CRIMINAL.** They do indeed take the most effectual means of preventing the repetition of the offence ; but as this is not connected with any possible improvement in the conduct of the moral agent, by whom it was perpetrated, it must be regarded rather as the act of a legislator who is thirsty for blood, than of that wisdom and humanity which imitate

the perfections of the Deity. We are dubious whether capital punishments are, in any case, authorised by the deductions of reason or the precepts of christianity, but we are convinced that in the majority of cases they are utterly irreconcilable with those precepts and deductions. All punishment supposes the infliction of pain; but pain is not the proper object of punishment. To punish merely for the sake of inflicting pain on the individual is, instead of the considerate humanity of a legislator, to exercise the ferocity of a savage. As far as capital punishments deter from the commission of crimes by the menace of pain, they are not half so efficacious as punishments of other descriptions might be made. The greatest pain, which capital punishments occasion, appears to be felt by the friends and relatives of the individual; who are not only afflicted by the ignominy of his end, but who mourn for an accountable being, who is deprived of the possibilities of reformation; in whom no moral change can be wrought by counsel or by discipline, and who can neither retrieve his character nor make restitution for his crime. Of the highly beneficial effects, which may be produced by the disuse of capital punishments, we have a striking proof in the prisons of Philadelphia, where the most salutary reformation has been wrought in the habits of the most notorious offenders, by a system of severity, directed by discretion and tempered with mercy. We are informed that his present majesty has an almost invincible repugnance to capital executions, and that it is never without strong feelings of aversion and regret that he signs any warrant for the purpose. We think that this fact is highly creditable to the king, and we consider it with more pleasure, because it gives us assurance that he would readily assent to any bill for abolishing a practice which is at once opposite to scripture, to reason and humanity.

ART. 17.—*Remarks on the Alliance between Church and State, and on the Test Laws. By the Rev. Richard King, M.A. formerly Fellow of New College, Oxford. 8vo. Booth. 1807.*

IN this pamphlet Mr. King has again dished up the stale arguments of bishop Warburton; but without improving the flavour or increasing the force of the ingredients by any additions of his own. We are strenuous advocates for a religious establishment, as far as it is made a means of conveying moral instruction to the people; and of impressing them with the incalculable importance of living soberly, righteously, and godly in this world, that they may be happy in the next.—Thus far a religious establishment is of infinite use; for while civil laws can influence only the outward conduct, such instruction may operate most beneficially on the interior of the heart.—But when a religious establishment, instead of being exclusively directed to these great moral ends, is converted into a mere engine of state, and rendered subservient to the purposes of political artifice and corruption, the establishment itself is degraded and religion disgraced.—We are told by our Saviour, that we cannot serve God and Mammon; but many of the sordid, narrow-minded and time-serv-

ing ministers of the establishment, who have been busy in raising the late 'hue and cry' against the catholics, think that the worship of Mammon is very compatible with the adoration of God. But the misfortune is, that they give to God only the service of the lips; while Mammon receives the fond idolatry of their hearts. A religious establishment, founded on such principles as are in unison with the dictates of reason and the precepts of christianity, would require no weak and crumbling fortifications of mystery and intolerance for its support. As it would inculcate charity to all sects, it would in every sect find the zealous protection of a friend. Every sect would experience love and reverence within its walls; which, instead of echoing with unscriptural dogmas and persecuting creeds, would send forth only the rational and exhilarating sounds of 'GLORY TO GOD IN THE HIGHEST; ON EARTH PEACE; GOOD WILL TOWARDS MEN.'

ART. 18.—*Memoir of the Case of St. John Mason, Esq. Barrister of Law, who was confined as a State Prisoner in Kilmainham, for more than two Years; containing Addresses and Letters to the Earl of Hardwicke; his Grace the Duke of Bedford; Mr. Wickham; Judge Daly; Sir Evan Nepean; Lord Henry Petty, &c. &c. and Letters from some of the above Personages. Most respectfully submitted to the Consideration of the Commons in Parliament assembled.* Dublin. Svo. Johnson. 4s. 1807.

IN the present pamphlet Mr. Mason has described a case of oppression and distress which has forcibly excited our attention and interested our sympathy. It is one striking proof among many others of the illegal acts which have been perpetrated in Ireland under the sanction, or with the connivance of the government. In August 1803 Mr. Mason was arrested without any reason whatever being assigned for the proceeding. He was lodged in Kilmainham gaol, in a cell, 10 feet by 6. He repeatedly requested of the then government of Ireland either to be brought to trial or to be set at liberty. But no attention was paid to his earnest solicitations; and he was kept in confinement till the 19th of September 1805, when he was discharged. Thus Mr. Mason suffered an arbitrary imprisonment of two years, in which he experienced numerous inconveniences and privations. During part of the time he, as well as some of the other prisoners, depose that they were kept on putrid meat, putrid water, and in a close atmosphere loaded with the pernicious exhalations of human excrement, which according to the representation before us appears to have been suffered to accumulate in various parts of the prison. Depositions to this effect respecting the state of the gaol, were made on oath, or they would stagger our belief. But the facts prove that no men ought to be trusted with any power, of which they are not accountable for the exercise. For though the superiors may not abuse the trust, the subaltern menials and agents generally will. And the tyranny of subordinate and inferior miscreants is always of the most intolerable and vexatious

kind. When Mr. Mason was liberated, he applied to Lord Hardwicke for some compensation for the heavy losses which his long and illegal imprisonment had caused him to sustain. Lord Hardwicke behaved to Mr. Mason with a becoming urbanity, but did not encourage any hope of redress; because he thought that redress would imply a *censure on the government*. But surely neither public bodies nor private individuals ought to be ashamed of making restitution for the injustice which they perpetrate, or of relinquishing a wrong way for a right. No such acts of tyranny as that which Mr. Mason experienced ever polluted the beneficent, the mild, and equitable sway of the late administration. Mr. Mason's case is now before the public, and the public seldom fails to sympathise with any well attested instance of individual oppression.

ART. 19.—*Remarks on Mr. Whitbread's Plan for the Education of the Poor; with Observations on Sunday Schools, and on the State of the apprenticed Poor.* By James Parkinson, Hoxton. Symonds. 8vo. 2s. 1807.

THIS pamphlet puts us in mind of some speeches of a *shuffling* methodistical senator, in which there is such a mixture of *pros* and *cons*, of approbation and dissent, that it is difficult at first to know what he would be at, till by observing certain unfounded suggestions and hostile innuendos, we discover that he is a secret enemy to the measure which he professes to praise; and that the cloak of candid impartiality is only worn to hide the rancour of inveterate dislike.

ART. 20.—*Short Remarks upon recent political Occurrences, and particularly on the New Plan of Finance.* 1807. Hatchard.

THIS pamphlet was written before the late ministers were dismissed from their places, and, though the author is an enemy to their measures, he appears to be far from deficient in candour or ability. Lord Grenville's plan of finance was to borrow a certain sum annually on the credit of the war taxes, and to create a sinking fund for the extinction of each loan. The amount of these taxes was to be twelve millions a year for the first three years; fourteen millions for the fourth year, and sixteen millions per year for the following sixteen years. Ten per cent. upon each loan was the sum to be set apart from the war taxes for the interest and sinking fund, leaving at the present price of the funds, about five per cent. as a sinking fund; which, at compound interest, was computed capable of redeeming the capital in fourteen years. This plan of finance appears to us the best that ever was proposed, as it would have occasioned no fresh taxes except to a very inconsiderable amount, and would rapidly have discharged the annual loans, which we might have borrowed during the continuance of the war. The writer of this pamphlet does not object so much to the plan itself as to the extent to which it was proposed to be carried. Time must shew whether our present financiers have any thing better to suggest.

POETRY.

- ART. 21.—*Pros and Cons, for Cupid and Hymen; in a Series of Metrical Satyric Dialogues, exhibiting the Horrors and Delights of being over Head and Ears in Love, with the supreme Felicity and Wretchedness of Matrimony; to which are added several other Pieces. By Jenkins Jones, Author of Hobby Horses, and the Philanthropist, and Editor of Love and Satire.* 8vo. 7s. Allen. 1807.

TO the editor of 'Love and Satire,' we apportioned no small degree of our applause, which we are sorry to be under the necessity of withholding from him as the author of 'Pros and Cons,' a performance both insipid and vulgar; utterly destitute of the spirit which animated his former production, and abounding only with those hackney'd vulgarities, which are the characteristics of a 'cockney.' Many of the fugitive pieces subjoined, however, are to be excepted from this general censure; and make us regret that they are to be found in company with such trash as 'Metrical Satyric Dialogues.'

- ART. 22.—*Melville's Mantle, being a Parody on the Poem entitled Elijah's Mantle.* 8vo. Budd. 1807.

MELVILLE'S mantle! a very ragged concern indeed!

NOVELS.

- ART. 23.—*Ellen, Heiress of the Castle. By Mrs. Pilkington.* 3 Vols. 13s. Crosby and Co.

THE heroine of this tale is the only child of Sir Raymond Mortimer. Sir Raymond having had the misfortune to lose an amiable wife of whom he was very fond, quits the gay world, and devotes his time to the education of his child. Ellen as she advances to womanhood has, with almost all heroines of this species of writing, a lovely face and perfect form; she is also represented with a fine disposition, ingenuous heart, spotless mind, and every accomplishment which a young lady of family and fortune ought to possess. She at the same time receives great advantages from the good instruction of her governess, who supplies the place of a mother to her pupil. The first misfortune which she experiences is the parting from this favourite friend, and almost immediately after from her father, who is persuaded by two antiquated old maids, his sisters, to leave the young lady under their care in case of death, instead of Mrs. Cleveland the former governess. The old gentleman feels a presentiment of his approaching death, and wishes to consult his friend, the rector of the parish; but he alters his will though against his judgment, and almost directly after, in mounting his horse

receives a kick which ends all his doubts before the parson arrives. This gentleman is left also one of the guardians of Ellen. Mr. Pemberton, for that is the rector's name, has an extremely handsome son, whom he warns not to fall in love with Ellen, and who, in spite of all admonition on that head, is accordingly over head and ears even before he knew it; and the lady is equally prepossessed in favour of this agreeable spark, without knowing it also. Ellen accompanies her maiden aunts to town, is introduced and universally admired; but still Mr. Percival Pemberton is in her eyes more charming than every other admirer, who after a time rescues her from the hands of a lord Callington, who has most ungentlemanly seized her person whilst driving about Epping Forest with her friend lady Diana Dowlass, intending to force her to marry him either by fair means or foul. Mr. P. Pemberton, in accomplishing this piece of gallantry, receives a ball which threatens to prove mortal, and instantly insists upon giving up the ghost, provided Ellen does not immediately consent to become his wife, when he will have a motive in wishing to live. On her hesitation he tears away the dressings, and acts the part of a madman in the most passionate style. Ellen is at length prevailed on without much reluctance to take the man she likes, who by the judicious management of his surgeon recovers; and proves himself a headstrong, depraved young man, a gamester a drunkard, and guilty of every species of fashionable debauchery. After rioting through the greater part of her fifty thousand pound fortune, he is very opportunely taken off in a duel; being run through the body by a brother gambler, who has endeavoured to seduce his wife; but, failing, prevails on him to be jealous of her with a friend who has saved him from jail. Mrs. Pemberton, after a proper time allowed by the statutes of the mode, consoles herself by taking a second husband of a more amiable disposition in the character of Lord Sydney Stauley. The character of Percival Pemberton, promised at the beginning every thing that is fair and prepossessing, but as soon as he is married he is metamorphosed into every thing that is black and depraved. What moral this is to inculcate, it is difficult for us to find out; nor is any probable reason assigned for the change. His former virtuous propensities, the good example of his father, the excellence of a well-ordered education, and the virtuous conduct of his wife, all seem to tell for nothing: his depravity is occasioned without cause; and his death is the result of passion, unaccompanied with remorse. The rest of the characters, if such they can be called, are common place and uninteresting. We have a lady Diana Dowlass, a good sort of fashionable body, most cordially despising her husband because he is a citizen, with a fashionable daughter who runs away with her father's clerk; and getting tired of him in a few months, lives in a scandalous way with a baronet who wounds her brother in a duel. We have besides the addition of two old maids, as capricious and ill-humoured as the generality of antiquated virgins are usually drawn, some pert chamber-maids and a fortune-telling gypsy. The language of Mrs. P. cannot be recommended for its excellence, nor can her plot for the novelty or interest.

ART. 24.—*The Soldier's Family, or Guardian Genii; a Romance, in four Vols.* By Ann Ormsby, Author of *Memoirs of a Family in Switzerland*. 12mo. Crosby. 1807.

THE motto prefixed to this romance is, 'Be ye therefore perfect, even as your father which is in heaven is perfect.' As guardians of the morals of our fair countrywomen, we can have no objection to this sacred admonition; but as the ladies, who are the principal readers of this class of literary productions, do not apply to novels for religious instruction, but almost solely for amusement, we are fearful they will be discouraged from the perusal of these volumes, by the bare sight of so solemn a text. The incidents however are not uninteresting, though frequently they are very improbable; and the style is as stiff as the person of the most prim quaker can possibly be. So fond indeed of preaching is the authoress, that we recommend her to the society of friends, as a person properly qualified for the office of public instructress; every chapter is introduced by a long quotation either from a sermon, or from some writer on morality, and concludes with a repetition of the same. We shall be perhaps deemed very uncharitable, if we doubted the purity of Mrs. Ormsby's intention in this new mode of writing romance: but we strongly suspect that the desire of swelling her volumes had greater weight with her, than the inculcating of morality. The selfishness however of the age must plead our excuse for want of charity; had the desire of instruction been the principal motive of the authoress, she might have recollected the old proverb, 'ne quid nimis,' which in English signifieth that 'too much pudding will choak a dog.'

ART. 25.—*The Benevolent Monk, or the Castle of O'Lalla, a Romance, in three Volumes.* By Theodore Melville, Esq. Author of *the White Knight, or the Monastery of Mourne*. 12mo. Crosby.

WE strenuously recommend to Theodore Melville the advice which Dr. Johnson gave to the Irishman, to reperuse every thing he writes, and whenever he meets with *shall* to alter it to *will*, and *vice versa*. By so doing he will write intelligible English. As to the plot, it is stale; a wicked brother conspires against the life of a brother, to succeed to his estates, and to gain possession of his wife's person; trap-doors, and subterranean passages, tapestry, and all the armoury of novels, are brushed up for the occasion.

ART. 26.—*L'Ile des Enfants, Histoire véritable.* Par M. de Genlis. 12mo. 2s. Boosey. 1807.

ART. 27.—*Charles et Charlotte, ou Première Education de l'Enfants.* 12mo. 2s. Boosey. 1807.

TWO very pretty books, with two pretty wooden cuts.

MEDICINE.

ART. 28.—*Report of the Royal College of Physicians of London, on Vaccination. With an Appendix, containing the Opinions of the Royal Colleges of Physicians of Edinburgh and Dublin, and of the Royal Colleges of Surgeons of London, of Dublin, and of Edinburgh.*

IF our account of this dispassionate, dignified and satisfactory report is less full than the importance of its substance seems to demand, it is because we hope that its circulation will be infinitely greater than that of our own journal, or than that of all our contemporaries united. The important matter it contains is conveyed in few words, and in a clear, forcible, intelligible style, neither obscured by abstruse disquisition, nor embarrassed by technical phraseology.

There is no one, therefore, who may not make himself master of the deliberate and solemn opinion of this learned body, pronounced after a laborious investigation, and addressed to parliament, in consequence of his majesty's commands, 'to enquire into the state of vaccine inoculation in the united kingdom, to report their opinion and observations upon that practice, upon the evidence which has been adduced in its support, and upon the causes which have hitherto retarded its general adoption.' Such was the important duty imposed upon the college of physicians. To fulfil it they did not content themselves with an indolent acquiescence in the opinions of others, however enlightened, but they thought right to begin as it were *ab initio*, to institute an enquiry as extensive as the limits of the united kingdom, and invite the whole profession to throw into a single focus every ray of information which would serve to illustrate the subject of their research.

'In aid of the knowledge and experience of the members of their own body, they have applied separately to each of the licentiates of the college; they have corresponded with the Colleges of Physicians of Dublin and Edinburgh; with the Colleges of Surgeons of London, Edinburgh and Dublin; they have called upon the societies established for vaccination for an account of their practice, to what extent it has been carried on, and what has been the result of their experience; and they have by public notice invited individuals to contribute whatever information they have severally collected. They have in consequence been furnished with a mass of evidence, communicated with the greatest readiness and candour, which enables them to speak with confidence upon all the principal points referred to them.'

The result of this widely extended and laborious investigation is in substance,

That the practice of vaccination is in general perfectly safe, and

in this respect it possesses material advantages over inoculation for the small pox ;

That the security derived from vaccination against the small pox, if not absolutely perfect, is as nearly so as can perhaps be expected from any human discovery ;

That it does less mischief to the constitution, and less frequently gives rise to other diseases, than the small pox, either natural or inoculated ;

That the benefits which flow from this practice to society are infinitely more considerable than from the former practice, as it spreads no infection, and can be communicated only by inoculation.

They conclude their report in the following words :

‘ From the whole of the above considerations the College of Physicians feel it their duty strongly to recommend the practice of vaccination. They have been led to this conclusion by no preconceived opinion, but by the most unbiassed judgment, formed from an irresistible weight of evidence which has been laid before them. For when the number, the respectability, the disinterestedness and the extensive experience of its advocates, is compared with the feeble and imperfect testimonies of its few opposers ; and when it is considered, that many who were once adverse to vaccination, have been convinced by further trials, and are now to be ranked among its warmest supporters, the truth seems to be established as firmly as the nature of such a question admits ; so that the College of Physicians conceive that the public may reasonably look forward with some degree of hope to the time when all opposition shall cease, and the general concurrence of mankind shall at length be able to put an end to the ravages at least, if not to the existence of the small pox.’

It appears from the Dublin College of Physicians that the practice is but in its infancy in Ireland ; however it makes daily progress ; and the opinions of practitioners are wholly favourable to it. The Edinburgh College assert, that in that enlightened metropolis ‘ it is universally approved of by the profession, and by the higher and middle ranks of the community, and that it has been much more generally adopted by the lower orders of the people than ever inoculation for the small pox was, and they believe the same to obtain over all Scotland.’

The London Royal College of Surgeons have most honourably distinguished themselves by the great labour and precision they have used in the collecting of materials for their report. They sent circular letters to every member of their body, containing the following judicious questions.

* 1st. How many persons have you vaccinated ?

* 2d. Have any of your patients had the small pox after vaccination ? In the case of every such occurrence, at what period was the

vaccine matter taken from the vesicle? How was it preserved? How long before it was inserted? What was the appearance of the inflammation? and what the interval between vaccination and the variolous eruption?

'3d. Have any bad effects occurred in consequence of vaccination? And if so, what were they?

'4th. Is the practice of vaccination increasing or decreasing in your neighbourhood; if decreasing, to what cause do you impute it?'

To such letters the board have received 426 answers: and the following are the results of their investigation:

'The number of persons stated in such letters to have been vaccinated, is 164,381.

'The number of cases in which small pox had followed vaccination, is 56.

'The board think it proper to remark under this head, that in the enumeration of cases in which small pox has succeeded vaccination, they have included none but those in which the subject was vaccinated by the surgeon reporting the facts.

'The bad consequences which have arisen from vaccination are, eruptions of the skin in sixty-six cases, and inflammation of the arm in twenty-four instances, of which three proved fatal.'

The testimony of the Royal Colleges of Surgeons of Edinburgh and of Dublin are to the same effect as the other reports, and afford gratifying accounts of the spreading benefits of this practice.

We shall not hazard the chance of weakening the impression of this most decisive and most satisfactory report by any observations of our own. We hope that every parent, and every well wisher to the community will make himself master of the plain, palpable and indisputable facts which it contains. The very learned and respectable society from whom it emanates, merit the grateful thanks of mankind at large, for the able manner in which they have executed the task assigned to them. May it have the happy effect of abashing for ever the bold, presumptuous and intimated opponents of the salutary practice, which has already rendered such essential service to humanity; and which promises eventually to exterminate the severest scourge of the human race!

We understand that a select committee of the College intends to present the public with a more detailed analysis of the great body of the evidence, which was transmitted to the College whilst they were engaged in this enquiry. We have been informed that numerous facts were brought forward, an account of which could not with any propriety be contained in this report. These, however, ought not to be lost to the public; and they will doubtless be received with much satisfaction by those who are most competent to estimate their value.

MISCELLANEOUS.

ART. 29.—*Great and good Deeds of Danes, Norwegians, and Holsteinians, collected by Ove Malling, Counsellor of Conferences, &c. to his Majesty the King of Denmark and Norway. Translated into English by the Author of 'a Tour in Zealand, with an historical Sketch of the Battle of Copenhagen.'* 4to. 1l. 1s. Baldwin, 1807.

WHETHER it be from the genius of German dullness, which has communicated its monotonous torpor to the present performance, from the want of interest in the matter, or of art in the execution, we shall not pretend to determine, but certain it is that we have derived but a very scanty portion either of pleasure or instruction from the present performance; and we should think ourselves wanting in proper regard for the gratification and the pockets of our readers, if we did not make this communication. Virtue is said to be best taught by example, but then the example should be so delineated as to arrest our attention and to interest our sympathies. The actions, which are here recorded, may, for aught we know, have been very 'great and good;' but there is so little vivacity in the narration, that the reader, who is best disposed to be pleased, will not read much before he yawns over the insipidity of the page. The defects of the work are not to be ascribed to the translator; he has executed his work with sufficient ability; and we wish that he had bestowed his pains on a more interesting composition.

ART. 30.—*Voyages to Portugal, Spain, Sicily, Malta, Asia-Minor, Egypt, &c. &c. from 1796 to 1801, with an historical Sketch and occasional Reflections. By Francis Collins, late Lieutenant of his Majesty's Ship Dolphin. Price 4s. Wm. Mantz, 22, Christopher Alley.*

THESE voyages are related in a plain and simple manner, and interspersed with numerous quotations from scripture, some of which are not very happily introduced. But Mr. Collins appears to be a man of a serious turn; and many of his reflections are such as would naturally arise in a mind like his, from the many escapes and perils which he has experienced, and the many majestic views, and striking objects which he has seen. The rock of Gibraltar, with the many wonders of St. Michael's cave, Lisbon, Oporto, and Cadiz, are well described, with the trade, manners, and religion, of the inhabitants. In several parts of his work, Mr. C. exhibits in a pleasing view, the good effects of industry, cleanliness, and temperance, so gratifying to an English mind. Speaking of Oporto he says, 'The inhabitants are comparatively industrious, and the higher ranks appear less supercilious and vain than in the metropolis. Their wines are excellent and cheap, yet they are not addicted to intoxication; indeed temperance is a prominent quality in the ge-

nerality of the Portuguese; a few grapes, with other fruit, bread, and a moderate quantity of small wine, which was sold at sixpence and eightpence the gallon, afforded a good dinner to a whole family. Sometimes they have in addition a little fish, but very rarely animal-food, and when obtained, a less quantity than would serve a native of Britain, will amply suffice, with vegetables and fruit, a family of four or six persons; in this respect they are worthy of imitation by many of our countrymen who make it their study to pamper their appetite. On his return home, Mr. C. thus depicts one of the passengers: 'Among the number of passengers was one of an extraordinary description, a camelion, which was often introduced on the mess-table, and its wonderful manner of subsistence, and no less wonderful change of colour, excited general admiration; during our breakfast it was commonly placed in the middle of the table, and soon became so familiar as to provide for itself, hereby demonstrating the fallacy of a common opinion of its living on air. The flies were its objects of attack; which it would strike with a spear at the end of its tongue, with the greatest nicety, impale them, and quickly drawing back, convey them to his mouth in an instant. In this manner did he arrest our attention, and together with his remarkable long tail, and frequent change of hues, which was affected by the colour of the objects near, sometimes blue, then a lively green, with beautiful spots, afforded amusement and instruction; he continued to entertain us while in the hot climates, but it was painful to observe the progress to inaction, as we approached the more northern latitudes.'

ART. 31.—*Advice to a Young Reviewer, with a Specimen of the Art.*
8vo. 1s. Rivington. 1807.

In our review for March last, the reader will find a critique on certain 'Poems by the Rev. Richard Mant, M. A. late fellow of Oriel college, Oxford.' This critique excited great murmurs in the common-room at Oriel, and diffused the most lively satisfaction through the rest of the university. Every gownsman, with the exception of certain fellows of Oriel, who had been amply buttered with Mr. Mant's praise, passed high commendation on the justness of our decisions and the impartial rigour of our criticism. But the flame of vengeance which was kindled among some of the lettered fraternity at Oriel, was too hot to be quenched without an effort at retaliation. The Rev. Mr. C. of that college was accordingly appointed to vindicate the uxorious muse of Mr. Mant; while he very archly levelled his satire against the whole reviewing tribe. The specimen which Mr. C. has furnished of the art consists in a ludicrous critique on the *L'Allegro* of Milton, which is of course censured abundantly; and hence the reader is led to infer that we might with as much reason have condemned the poetry of the author of *Paradise Lost* as that of Mr. Mant. If Mr. Mant can derive any pleasure from the parallel which is thus attempted to be drawn between himself and Homer's rival in poetic fame, we do not

envy him his portion of self-conceit any more than we admire the judgment of the professor of poetry who can see no difference between dullness and genius ; nor distinguish the smell of a dunghill from the essence of a rose.

ART. 32.—*The Daisy; or cautionary Stories in Verse, adapted to the Ideas of Children from Four to Eight Years Old. Illustrated with Thirty Engravings.* Harris. 1807.

THE daisy is a pretty simple flower ; and the present work is not undeserving of the name.

ART. 33.—*Old Friends in a new Dress ; or familiar Fables in Verse; with Cuts.* 6d. Darton. 1807.

AN old friend with a new face is not always a pleasant sight, but we are not sorry to see our old friend Æsop change his prosaic countenance into one of such easy rhyme as we behold in this performance.

ART. 34.—*The Student's Companion, or a Summary of general Knowledge; comprehending Geography, Natural History, Astronomy, Chronology, History, Biography, Commerce, Belles Lettres, History of Literature, Theology, and Politics. Illustrated by Engravings.* By John Sabine. 8vo. 5s. Egerton. 1807.

THIS publication is a concise, but instructive, summary of as much general knowledge as could be compressed in one volume, of such a size and price as might be calculated for the instruction of youth, without being too simple and elementary for persons of riper years. Having devised what subjects would be of the greatest utility, the editor has endeavoured to make them abound with all the interesting information he could extract from works of acknowledged celebrity, or could derive from the most ingenious compilations. The maps in the geographical part are very neatly engraved.

ART. 35.—*The Preceptor and his Pupils ; or Dialogues, Examinations and Exercises in Grammar in general, and the English Grammar in particular, for the Use of Schools and private Students.* By George Crabb, Master of the Commercial and Literary Seminary. 8vo. 3s. 6d. boards. Boosey. 1807.

GEORGE Crab is not so sour a gentleman as his name would indicate ; indeed he is the best tempered schoolmaster we ever remember either to have heard or read of, for he not only talks nonsense himself, but suffers his pupils *all at once* to do the same. (vide p. 53). This new mode of instruction out does all the outdoings of all the essay writers on education from Quintilian to the present day. N.B. A crab-stick would be very serviceable in this gentleman's academy.

ART. 36.—*Reasons for rejecting the presumptive Evidence of Mr. Almon, that 'Mr. Hugh Boyd was the Writer of Junius;' with Passages selected to prove the real Author of the Letters of Junius.* 2s. 8vo. Highley. 1807.

IN 1803 a letter appeared in an American newspaper, with the signature of T. Rodney, affirming the American major-general Charles Lee, to be author of the Letters of Junius; asserting, moreover, that the secret escaped from his own mouth in a private conversation with the letter-writer; and that it was not revealed during the general's life, at his own special request. So far we have direct and positive evidence on a point, which has so long engaged the public curiosity. When Mr. Almon undertook to shew that Mr. Hugh Boyd was the writer in question, (we think, with very little appearance of probability on his side) the first step was to overturn Mr. Rodney's evidence. This he has done by a round assertion, that in the year 1769, when these celebrated letters appeared, the general was at Warsaw, in the service of the king of Poland. But the present writer concludes from a letter of the general, which is dated Dijon, 19th January, 1768, that he left Warsaw in 1767. Again Mr. Almon asserts that General Lee went to America in 1774. Mr. Longworthy, the editor of General Lee's memoirs, says, that General Lee arrived in America in 1773, which confirms Mr. Rodney's evidence, that it was in 1773 that his conversation took place with the general in America. So far then it must be granted that the accuracy of Mr. Almon is disproved, and his objections refuted. It remains to produce the positive evidence in corroboration of Mr. Rodney's assertion. The general, it seems, was at that time a colonel in the British service, disappointed in his views of promotion, in violent opposition to the measures of government, and ardent and enthusiastic in the cause of liberty. He was much connected with the county of Suffolk, and often visited there; the very county in which the duke of Grafton lived. He had friends in the highest stations, and it appears from his correspondence, prior to the publication of Junius, that the men and measures which he disliked, are those which formed the subjects of the letters of Junius. It is added, that the very frequent use of military phrases proves that Junius was by profession a soldier. This we think very far-fetched and inconclusive. Many extracts from the general's letters are given to prove a similarity in style, phrases, and manner of thinking. They certainly show great vigour of intellect, and force of expression. But to institute a satisfactory comparison, we should wish for finished compositions, rather than the hasty effusions of epistolary correspondence. We must allow, however, upon the whole, that the general seems to have possessed such superior talents that he might have been the author of Junius. If to this we add Mr. Rodney's express evidence that he *was*, the proof is the strongest that has hitherto been given to the public on the subject.

ADDRESS TO THE PUBLIC.

THE numerous testimonies of unsolicited approbation, respecting the impartial conduct of our Review, which we have lately received from all parts of the country, have determined us to make new and more vigorous exertions to merit the favour which we have obtained. We have accordingly made such arrangements, as will better enable our critical industry to keep pace with the rapid motions of the press. We are far from wishing to draw any invidious comparisons between ourselves and our competitors; but we believe that even at present, no other Review is superior to our own in an interesting variety of matter, or in the early notice of new publications.

Our political and our religious principles are, we trust, such as will secure us the steady support of the good and wise, of every sect and party in the United Empire. In politics we maintain the pure principles of the British constitution; and in religion, the unsophisticated doctrine of the New Testament. We are the friends of all who are the friends of truth, of their country, and mankind. No bad book has ever been commended by us, because it was written by our friends; nor any good book been reviled, because it was the production of our enemies. We will continue to distribute impartial justice both to friends and foe; and not only an elaborate criticism, but a pure morality shall preside in our decisions. Such is the plan which we will prosecute with unabating perseverance; and according to the degree of the execution, will be our share of the public approbation.

In future we shall enumerate at the end of each number, the principal articles which will be reviewed in the next; and to the Appendix, we shall subjoin a summary of politics, principally domestic, for the last four months, and a compendious history of literature and science during the same period.

A list of articles, which, with many others, will appear in the next number of the Critical Review.

Howard's Translation of the Inferno of Dante.	tee's Account of the Circumstances which gave Rise to his Election.
Pennington's Life of Mrs. Carter.	Savage's Account of New Zealand.
Adams on Morbid Poisons.	Tennant's Thoughts on the British Government in India.
Thornton's Present State of Turkey.	Cogan's Ethical Treatise on the Passions.
Horne Tooke's letter to the Editor of the Times.	Naithsmith's Elements of Agriculture.
Hewling's Letter to the Electors of Westminster.	Parnell's Historical Apology for the Irish Catholics.
Paul's Retutation of the Calumnies of John Horne Tooke.	Hogg on Sheep.
Sir Francis Burdett's Commit-	